LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
1800

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

1534

A CLASS-BOOK

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

ILLUSTRATED WITH NUMEROUS WOODCUTS

AND HISTORICAL MAPS.

COMPILED FOR PUPILS PREPARING FOR THE OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS, THE LONDON UNIVERSITY MATRICULATION AND FOR THE HIGHER CLASSES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, CITY OF WASHINGTON.

BY THE

REV. DAVID MORRIS, B.A. LOND.

Classical Master in Liverpool College:
Author of 'A Class-Book of Inorganic Chemistry.'

FIFTEENTH THOUSAND.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS COPYRIGHT No. 15349 1879. CITY OF WASHINGTON

NEW YORK:
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY,
549 AND 551 BROADWAY.
1879.

COPYRIGHT BY
D. APPLETON & COMPANY,
1879.

DA32
.M875

PREFACE.

In the compilation of this Book the author has consulted the best and most recent historical works, and he is particularly indebted to the writings of Freeman, Dean Hook, Hume, Froude, and Macaulay.

The events of each reign, grouped according to their order and importance, are placed at the beginning of each chapter. The outline thus given is filled up in detail in separate narratives. Minor facts, requiring no detailed account, are briefly mentioned at the close of the reign. A chapter upon the Social Condition of the People is given at the end of each period. Attention is drawn to important persons and events by the use of types of various kinds, and the leading dates stand out distinctly in the margin.

The numerous woodcuts which illustrate the book are for the most part taken from 'Lectures on English History' and 'Life of Edward III.,' by W. Longman, Esq., who kindly placed the illustrations of those valuable works at the author's disposal.

The utility of the work is further enhanced by four Historical Maps, drawn by E. Weller, Esq., F.R.G.S.

The author gratefully acknowleges the valuable assistance of the Rev. H. S. Maye, B.A., of Liverpool College, in revising the proof sheets.

October 1871.

CONTENTS.

PAGE

Introduction 1

Roman Period 3

Government, Religion, &c. 7

Leading Dates 8

Saxon Period.

The Saxon Heptarchy 9

Early Saxon Kings 15

Danish Kings 25

Saxon Line restored 28

Religious, Political, and Social Institutions, &c. . . 35

Leading Dates 43

Genealogical Tables, connecting the Saxon and Norman Lines 44

The Norman Kings.

William I. 45

William II. 55

Henry I. 59

Stephen 65

Social Condition of the People 70

Leading Dates 75

Plantagenets Proper.

PAGE

Henry II. 77
Richard I. 88
John 94
Henry III. 101
Edward I. 111
Edward II. 117
Edward III. 122
Richard II. 132
Social Condition of the People 138
Leading Authors 145
Leading Dates 146
Genealogical Table of the Houses of York and Lancaster 148

House of Lancaster.

Henry IV. 149
Henry V. 154
Henry VI. 159

House of York.

Edward IV. 167
Edward V. 173
Richard III. 175
Social Condition of the People in the Lancastrian and Yorkist Period 179
Leading Authors and Dates 185
Genealogical Table connecting the Plantagenets with the Tudors 187

Tudor Period.

Henry VII. 188
Henry VIII. 199
Edward VI. 220
Mary I. 229
Elizabeth 237
Social Condition of the People 254
Leading Authors 264
Leading Dates 266
Genealogical Table connecting the Tudors and Stuarts 268

Stuart Period.

PAGE

James I. 269
Charles I. 279
The Commonwealth 308
Charles II. 324
James II. 347
William III. and Mary II. 363
Anne 378
Social Condition of the People 387
Leading Authors 402
Leading Dates 403
Genealogical Table connecting the Stuarts with the House of Brunswick 406

Hanoverian Period.

George I. 407
George II. 417
Leading Authors under George I. and George II. . 435
George III. 437
Leading Authors 471
George IV. 473
Leading Authors 480
William IV. 481
Leading Authors 487
Victoria 488
Leading Authors 509
Social Condition of the People 512
The British Constitution 520
British Possessions 524
Leading Dates of the Period 526

Table of English Sovereigns 530
Genealogical Table of the House of Hanover . . . 533

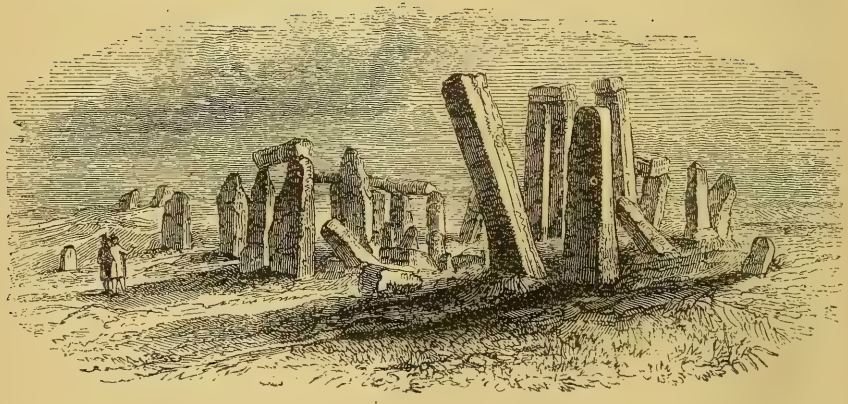
Great Seal of Edward the Confessor

MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

		PAGE
Map of Roman Britain	*To face*	8
„ Saxon England	„	44
„ France, showing English Possessions time of Plantagenets	„	148
„ France, showing English Possessions time of the Lancastrians	„	187
Great Seal of Edward the Confessor		x
Stonehenge		xii
Coronation of Harold II.		34
Earl's Barton Church, Northamptonshire		[33]
Witanagemot		[34]
William I. granting lands in Richmondshire to Alan, Count of Britanny		[51]
Norman Ship		[52]
„ Castle		[71]
Tournament		[72]
Knights and Shipping of the 13th Century		[99]
Crossbowman and Military Architecture of the 14th Century		[100]
Knights Fighting		106
Royal Carriage of the 13th Century		110
Litter, illustrative of the Travelling of the 14th Century		121
Archer, with Sheaf of Arrows		126
Crossbowman, with Shield		127
Royal Feast in the Plantagenet Period		139
Daïs with High Table and Tapestry		140

PAGE

KNIGHT IN ARMOUR, AND LADY'S COSTUME, TIME OF HENRY V. 158
SOLDIER AND HAND-GUN, TIME OF EDWARD IV. . . . 172
COSTUME OF THE NOBILITY, TIME OF HENRY VII. . 197
COSTUME, TIME OF HENRY VIII. 219
EDWARD VI. AND LADY JANE GREY 227
ENGLISH WAR-SHIP AND SPANISH GALLEON, TIME OF ELIZABETH 248
LADY'S COSTUME, TIME OF ELIZABETH 253
COSTUME, TIME OF JAMES I. 278
CAVALIER, TIME OF CHARLES I. 307
OLIVER CROMWELL 323
CHARLES II. AND HIS QUEEN 345
COSTUME, TIME OF JAMES II. AND WILLIAM III. . . 362



Stonehenge.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

INTRODUCTION.

VERY LITTLE is known of the history of the British Isles before the arrival of the Romans under Julius Cæsar (55 B.C.). A Greek author, said to be Aristotle, who lived in the fourth century before Christ, first mentions these islands by name. He calls England and Scotland **Albion** (meaning *White Island*), and Ireland **Ierne** (meaning *West*). The two former countries were known also by the name of **Britannia**, a word said to be derived from the name of the chief, **Brutus**, who first settled here.

The inhabitants of these islands in the time of Julius Cæsar were of **Celtic** origin, and were divided into two branches, the **Gael** and the **Cymry**. The descendants of the Gael now inhabit Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland; those of the Cymry are found in Wales.

The people were divided into several tribes, each under an independent chief. Those inhabiting the southern parts of the island were more civilised than the rest. They cultivated the land, and made cloth for clothes. The inland tribes lived chiefly on milk and flesh, clothed themselves with the skins of beasts killed in the chase, tattooed their bodies, and stained them with a blue dye obtained from a plant called woad. Their towns were simply clusters of huts in the midst of the forests, surrounded by a ditch and a rampart of felled trees. They were brave and hardy in war; their weapons were a dart or javelin, a sword, and a small shield. They fought in war-chariots, having scythes attached to the axles. A great portion of the country was

covered with forests, in which roamed the bear, wolf, and boar. Many other parts, now cultivated, were once marshes or moors.

Commerce was not unknown to the southern Britons. Long before the birth of Christ, Phœnician sailors from the colonies in Spain and Africa came to the Scilly Isles for tin, which were called, in consequence, **Cassiterides**, or Tin Islands. Trade was also carried on with the Gauls. The chief exports were tin, iron, gold, copper, dogs, skins, and slaves; and the imports were salt, brass, and earthenware.

The **religion** of the Britons was a system of idolatry called **Druidism**, from a Greek word **drus**, *an oak*, because their religious services were performed chiefly in groves of oak. Their priests were called Druids, who were also bards, teachers of youth, law-givers, and judges. Their influence over the people was immense. They believed that the soul was immortal, and passed after death into another body; they taught piety to the gods and kindness to man, and offered human sacrifices upon their altars, or in large cages of wicker-work. The persons thus sacrificed were those guilty of crime, or prisoners of war. The Druids had great veneration for the oak and the mistletoe. When the mistletoe was found growing upon the oak, the chief Druid, or Arch-Druid, assembled the whole tribe on New Year's Day, which was then in the month of March, and with much ceremony cut down the plant with a golden sickle. Two white bulls were then offered in sacrifice, and prayers made to the gods that the mistletoe thus cut should prove a sure remedy against disease and poison.

The custom of decorating houses at Christmas with the mistletoe and other evergreens has, no doubt, come down to us from these early times.

The immense ruins found in various parts of England, such as those of Stonehenge and Abury, in Wiltshire, are supposed to be the remains of Druidical temples.

THE ROMAN PERIOD.

55 B.C. to 426 A.D.—481 years.

CHAPTER I.

Julius Cæsar, the commander of the Roman forces in Gaul (France), resolved to attempt the conquest of Britain, because the inhabitants had given help to some of the Gallic tribes in their wars against him. He sailed across the Straits of Dover with two legions, or 12,000 men, and landed near Deal. The Britons, collected on the beach, bravely resisted his forces, but after a severe struggle they were forced to give way to Roman valour and discipline. After a few days Cæsar returned to Gaul, having received promises of submission and a few hostages.

August 55 B.C.

In the following year he returned with 800 ships, containing five legions, or 30,000 foot, and 2,000 horse. The Britons, under the leadership of **Cassivelaunus,** chief of the tribe of the Trinobantes, were driven across the Thames, and the fortress of **Verulamium,** where St. Albans now stands, was destroyed. After this event, and the failure of an attack upon the Roman naval camp on the coast, the Britons sued for peace. Cæsar fixed the amount of tribute, received hostages, and went back to Gaul with all his forces.

54 B.C.

Britain was free from Roman interference for the next ninety-seven years. During this time, several emperors thought of conquering the island. One, called **Caligula,** collected an army on the coast of Gaul, but instead of crossing the Channel, he gave there the signal of battle, and told the soldiers to gather shells in remembrance of their victory over the ocean.

At length the Emperor **Claudius** sent a general, **Aulus Plautius**, with an army to invade Britain. He drove the Britons across the Thames, and was then joined by the emperor himself with a new army. Claudius penetrated into Essex, and took **Camalodunum** (Colchester or Maldon). He then returned to Rome, leaving the government of the conquered part of the island to Plautius and Vespasian. A chief, called **Caractacus**, headed the Britons for some years. Forced at last to retire into Wales, he united his forces with the people of the district, who were named **Silures**, and took up a strong position on a hill in Shropshire, called **Caer-Caradoc**. **Ostorius Scapula**, the successor of Plautius, marched against him, defeated his forces, and captured his stronghold. Caractacus fled for refuge to his step-mother, **Cartismandua**, Queen of the Brigantes, who treacherously gave him up to the Romans. He was taken in chains to Rome, along with his family; but the Emperor Claudius was so pleased with his spirit and bravery that he set him at liberty.

43 A.D.

Another famous leader of the Britons was **Boadicea**, Queen of the **Iceni**, a tribe inhabiting Norfolk and Suffolk. On account of insults received from the Roman officers, she called her people to arms, and while the Roman governor, **Suetonius Paulinus**, was destroying the Druids of **Mona** (Anglesey), she overthrew Camalodunum, burnt **Londinium** (London), and killed about 70,000 Romans. Suetonius soon after attacked her, and slew in a great battle about 80,000 of her forces. She herself escaped captivity by taking poison.

61 A.D.

Julius Agricola, appointed governor 78 A.D., was the most successful Roman general ever sent to Britain. In the first two years of his government he conquered the whole country as far as the Tweed. In 81 A.D. he extended his conquests to the Friths of Forth and Clyde, and there built a chain of fortresses. He afterwards penetrated to the foot of the Grampians, where he defeated a Caledonian chief named **Galgacus**, in a battle supposed to have been fought at **Ardoch**, Perthshire. About the same time the Roman ships, sailing round Britain, discovered it to be an island.

84 A.D.

Agricola attempted to win the good-will of the Britons by establishing good laws and ruling them with justice. He taught them to build temples and houses, and encouraged the study of all peaceful arts; and thus very many were persuaded to learn the Roman language, and adopt the manners, customs, and dress of their conquerors.

After the recall of Suetonius, nothing of interest happened until the time of the Emperor **Hadrian**, who visited the island 120 A.D. He drove back the Caledonians, and built a strong rampart between the River Tyne and the Solway Frith, called the Wall of Hadrian, the ruins of which are known as the **Picts' Wall. Lollius Urbicus,** the governor under the Emperor **Antoninus Pius,** drove the Caledonians beyond the Friths of Clyde and Forth, and repaired the forts built by Agricola, to which he gave the name of the **Wall of Antoninus,** now known as Graham's Dyke.

139 A.D.

In the year 208 A.D. the aged Emperor **Severus** came to the island. In order to punish the Caledonians for their attacks upon the Roman province, he penetrated through the thick forests to the northern districts, and defeated the mountaineers in many a battle, but with a loss to himself of 50,000 men. On his return, he caused the Wall of Hadrian to be repaired and strengthened with new forts; and soon after he died at **Eboracum** (York).

211 A.D.

For some years after this Britain was free from the attacks of the Caledonians. But now a new enemy appeared, in the shape of **Saxon pirates,** who, coming from the German coast, committed many ravages on the eastern part of the island. An officer was specially appointed by the Romans to ward off their attacks, and for this reason he was called the **Count of the Saxon Shore.** The first one appointed to this duty, named **Carausius,** was accused of receiving bribes from the pirates; and, fearing punishment, he made himself Emperor of Britain, and ruled the country well, until he was slain by his minister **Allectus,** 293 A.D. Allectus was killed in battle by the Emperor **Constantius,** who restored Britain

286 A.D.

to the Roman sway, 296 A.D. This emperor married a British lady, named **Helena**; he died at York, and was succeeded in the empire by his son **Constantine**, afterwards called the Great.

306 A.D.

After the death of Constantius, the northern part of Britain was again troubled by the people of Caledonia, who were now called Picts and Scots. The Picts were the descendants of the Caledonians, and the Scots were people who passed over from the north of Ireland. These savage tribes penetrated once as far as London, but they were ultimately driven back to their own boundaries.

A Roman general named **Maximus**, who had fought bravely against the Picts and Scots, made himself Emperor of Britain, and invaded Gaul with a large army of Britons, in the hope of becoming master of the western half of the Roman Empire. He was defeated and put to death. Many of the Britons who had followed his standard settled in a part of Gaul called **Armorica** (Brittany). The Picts and Scots, taking advantage of the absence of the troops under Maximus, renewed their attacks; but **Stilicho**, a Roman general sent by the Emperor Honorius, repelled them, and gave peace to the island.

388 A.D.

396 A.D.

About this time the Goths and barbarians from the central parts of Europe were making great inroads upon the Roman Empire, so that it became necessary to withdraw the legions from Britain in order to defend Italy. On this account Honorius released the Britons from their allegiance, and recalled his soldiers to fight against Alaric, King of the Goths. The Britons, thus left defenceless, were attacked again by their old enemies the Picts and Scots, and were, consequently, compelled to petition Rome for assistance. A legion returned in 418 A.D., drove back the enemy, repaired the northern walls, drilled the people in the use of arms, and then took their final departure.

410 A.D.

426 A.D.

CHAPTER II.

GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, ETC.

GOVERNMENT.

The Romans divided Britain into six provinces, viz.:

1. **BRITANNIA PRIMA,** the country south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel.
2. **BRITANNIA SECUNDA,** Wales and the border counties west of the Severn and Dee.
3. **FLAVIA CÆSARIENSIS,** the country from the Thames to the Humber and Mersey.
4. **MAXIMA CÆSARIENSIS,** from the Humber to the Wall of Hadrian, on the Tyne.
5. **VALENTIA,** from the Tyne to Antonine's Wall.
6. **VESPASIANA,** north of Antonine's Wall.

The last-named province was never conquered by the Romans. Each province had its own governor; over all was an officer, called a **Vicarius,** or vicar, who was responsible to the Prefect of Gaul. There were usually kept in the island about 20,000 soldiers, who were under the command of three chief officers, called respectively the Count of Britain, the Duke of Britain, and the Count of the Saxon Shore.

The **towns** built by the Romans were originally fortified stations for the soldiers, to which the name **castra,** or camp, was given. Traces of this word remain in the names of towns ending in **chester, cester,** or **caster,** as Manchester, Leicester, Doncaster. Many of these towns were adorned with temples, theatres, baths, circuses, monuments, and large mansions. Their inhabitants were chiefly Roman, though we must understand by this term people collected from all parts of the empire.

The **trade** of the country was considerable; there were native manufactures of pottery and glass, and corn was grown and exported to a large extent. Excellent roads

were made and paved with stone, to which the name **strata** was given—the origin of our **street.** The following were the **four** chief roads: 1. **Watling Street,** extending from the coast of Kent, through London and Chester, to Carnarvon. 2. **Ryknield Street,** from the mouth of the Tyne to St. David's. 3. **Irmin** or **Hermin Street,** from St. David's to Southampton. 4. **Foss Way,** between Cornwall and Lincoln.

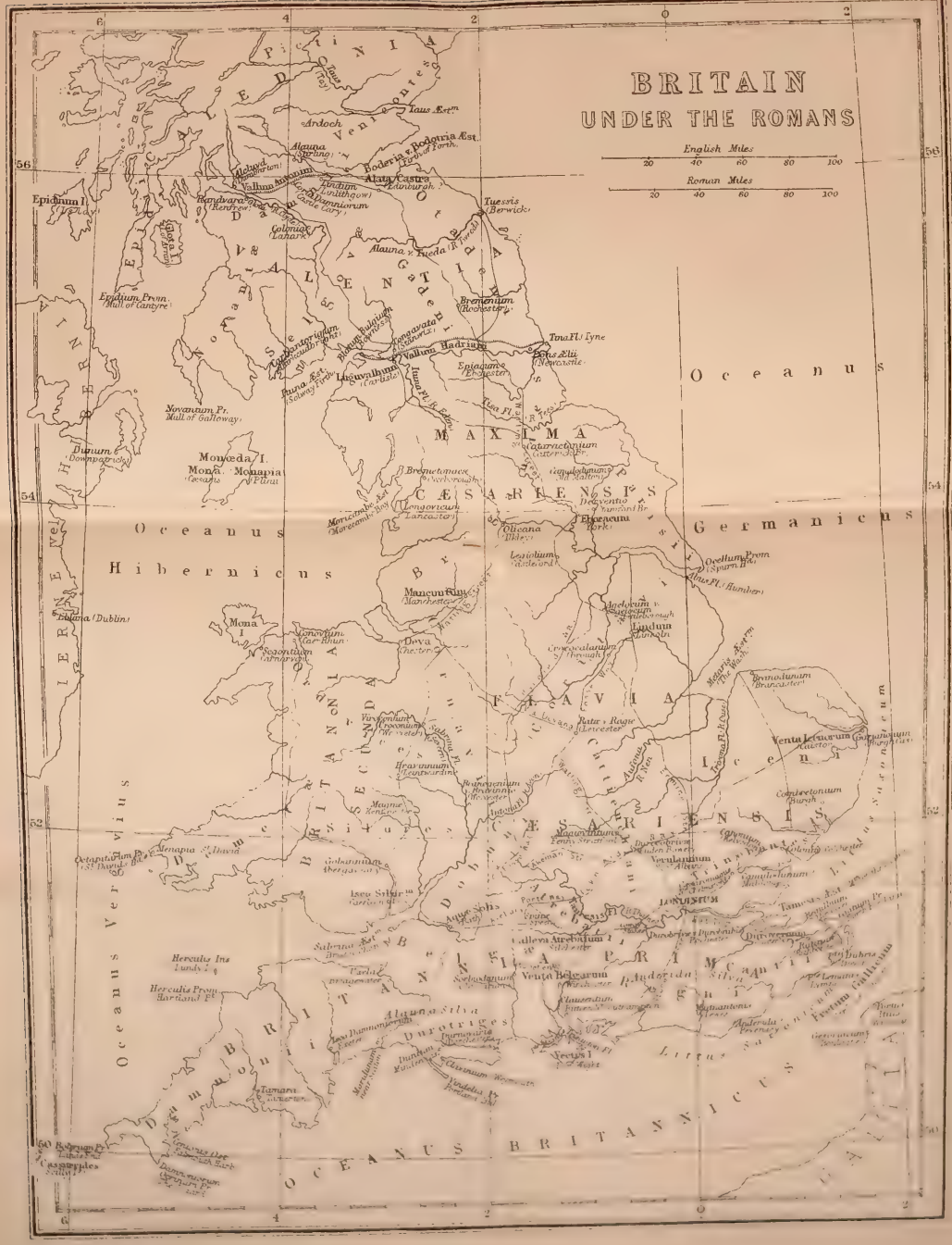
Christianity is said to have been introduced into the island early in the second century. Though we know not how or by whom it was first preached here, yet we are certain its progress was rapid and extensive.* British bishops attended the Council of Arles, in France, 314 A.D.; and some are supposed to have been present at the Council of Nice, 325 A.D. The profession of Christianity was attended with the same dangers in Britain as elsewhere. In 303 A.D., during the persecution under the Emperor Diocletian, St. Alban, the first British martyr, suffered death at Verulamium, since called in his honour St. Albans.

LEADING DATES OF THE PERIOD.

First Landing of Julius Cæsar	55	B.C.
Second ditto	54	„
Roman Invasion under Claudius	43	A.D.
Caractacus taken prisoner	51	„
Boadicea	61	„
Julius Agricola sent to Britain	78	„
Agricola's Wall, from Tyne to Solway Frith	81	„
Battle with Galgacus	84	„
Hadrian's Wall built	120	„
Antonine's Wall	139	„
Severus dies at York	211	„
Usurpation of Carausius	286	„
St. Alban's Martyrdom	303	„
Constantius dies at York	306	„
Honorius frees Britain from its Allegiance	410	„
A Roman Legion returns to assist the Britons	418	„
Romans finally leave Britain	426	„

* Some think that converted Roman soldiers were the first preachers of Christianity in this island; while others say that this honour belongs to St. Paul or St. Peter.

BRITAIN
UNDER THE ROMANS
Oceanus Ve
CALEDONIA
Picti
Taus (Tay)
Taus Estm.
Ardoch
Caledonii
Ierne
Ocean
Aquæ Solis (Bath)
Sabrina Estm. (Bristol Chan.)
Herculis Ins. (Lundy I.)
Herculis Prom. (Hartland Pt.)
Uxela (Bridgewater)
Isca Damnoniorum (Exeter)
Tamara (Tamerton)
Damnoniorum Pr. (The Lizard)
Tenionis Ost. (Falmouth Harb.)
Belgium Pr. (Land's End)
Cassiterides (Scilly Is.)
Damnonii
Britannia
Belgæ
Durotriges
Alauna Silva
Durnovaria (Dorchester)
Durium (Maiden Castle)
Clavinium (Weymouth)
Vindelia Pr. (Portland Bill)
Morbium (near Seaton)
Sorbiodunum (Old Sarum)
Stonehenge
Venta Belgarum (Winchester)
Clausentum (Bitterne, N. Southampton)
Vectis I. (I. of Wight)
Calleva Atrebatum (Silchester)
Atrebates
Aquæ Calidæ (Aquæ Sulis)
Spinæ (Speen)
Parta Way
Thamesis Fl. (R. Thames)
Cowey Stakes
Durobrivæ (Rochester)
Durobrivæ
Londinium
Watling St.
Tamesis Æst.
Regulbium (Reculver)
Cantium Pr. (North Foreland)
Durovernum (Canterbury)
Rutupiæ (Richborough)
Portus Dubris (Dover)
Portus Lemanis (Lymne)
Fretum Gallicum (Strs. of Dover)
Portus Itius (Wissant)
Gesoriacum (Boulogne)
Regni
Mutuantonis (Lewes)
Anderida (Pevensey)
Anderida
Silva Anderida
Cantii
Littus Saxonicum
Oceanus Britannicus
Gallia
Oceanus Britannicus
6
4
2
0
2
50


BRITAIN
UNDER THE ROMANS
English Miles
20 40 60 80 100
Roman Miles
20 40 60 80 100
Oceanus Hibernicus
Oceanus Germanicus
Oceanus Britannicus
Oceanus Verginius
MAXIMA CÆSARIENSIS
FLAVIA CÆSARIENSIS
BRITANNIA PRIMA
VALENTIA
Vallum Hadriani
Vallum Antonini
Ierne
Mona I.
Monœda I.
Monapia
Hibernia
Dublana / Dublin
Eblana
Manceunium
Mancunium
Manchester
Deva
Chester
Legiolium
Legeolium
Eboracum
York
Longovicum
Lancaster
Olicana
Ilkley
Bremetonacæ
Ribchester
Coccium
Wigan
Derventio
Navio
Ocellum Prom.
Spurn Pt.
Abus Fl.
Humber
Tuessis
Berwick
Alauna
Ardoch
Alata Castra
Edinburgh
Bodotria Æst.
Firth of Forth
Epidium I.
Epidium Prom.
Mull of Cantyre
Novantum Pr.
Mull of Galloway
Dunum
Dumpender Hill
Isurium
Aldborough
Lindum
Lincoln
Ratæ
Leicester
Venta Icenorum
Caistor
Camboricum
Cambridge
Durobrivæ
Castor
Bannaventa
Norton
Tripontium
Cleycester
Venonæ
High Cross
Viroconium
Wroxeter
Uxacona
Oakengates
Mediolanum
Chesterton
Uriconium
Wroxeter
Rutupiæ
Richborough
Dubris
Dover
Lemanis
Lympne
Anderida
Pevensey
Regnum
Chichester
Noviomagus
Clausentum
Bitterne
Venta Belgarum
Winchester
Calleva Atrebatum
Silchester
Pontes
Staines
Londinium
London
Verulamium
St. Albans
Durocobrium
Dunstable
Magiovinium
Fenny Stratford
Isca Silurum
Caerleon
Venta Silurum
Caerwent
Gobannium
Abergavenny
Leucarum
Loughor
Moridunum
Carmarthen
Nidum
Neath
Bovium
Boverton
Sarum
Old Sarum
Durnovaria
Dorchester
Vindocladia
Badbury
Ischalis
Ilchester
Aquæ Sulis
Bath
Abonæ
Sea Mills
Trajectus
Aust
Glevum
Gloucester
Corinium
Cirencester
Durocornovium
Wanborough
Spinæ
Speen
Calleva
Silchester
Vindomis
Basingstoke
Brige
Winchester
Venta Belgarum
Andredesweald
Regnum
Chichester
Portus Adurni
Portchester
Clausentum
Bitterne
Portus Magnus
Portus Lemanis
Lympne
Portus Dubris
Dover
Portus Rutupis
Richborough
Portus Lemanis
Lympne
Portus Dubris
Dover
Portus Rutupis
Richborough
Portus Adurni
Portchester
Portus Magnus

THE SAXON PERIOD.

426 A.D. to 1066 A.D.

CHAPTER I.

THE SAXON HEPTARCHY.

426 A.D. to 827 A.D.

On the final departure of the Romans, the chief towns in Britain became the centres of petty kingdoms under the rule of military chiefs. Instead of uniting together against their old enemies—the people of Caledonia—they made war against each other, and thus offered themselves an easy prey to those rude and warlike invaders. On one occasion they had the good sense to put aside their animosities and unite together in defence of their homes. Under the leadership of **Germanus**, a Gallic bishop, who happened to be in the island at that time, the Britons attacked a plundering band of Picts, and, commencing the onslaught with the shout of 'Hallelujah!' routed them with great slaughter. This war-cry gave to the battle the name of the **Hallelujah Victory**. The peace that followed this victory was only of short duration. Rivalry sprang up again, disunion crept in, quarrels arose; and so the weakness that consequently followed invited fresh attacks from the wily northern foe. About this time, the southern Britons were divided into two factions. One of these, representing the Roman interest and headed by **Ambrosius**, consisted of the Roman citizens left in the island; the other, headed by **Vortigern**, was called the British party, and was composed chiefly of Britons. The common danger of the dreaded Pict compelled both factions to send to Gaul for help. A letter, entitled 'The

429 A.D.

Groans of the Britons,' was sent to Ætius, Prefect of Gaul, in which it was said :—'The barbarians chase us into the sea; the sea throws us back upon the barbarians; and we have only the hard choice left us of perishing by the sword or by the waves.' This last appeal for Roman help was made in vain, and the Britons had to look elsewhere for assistance.

446 A.D.

Just then, three long keels, filled with Saxon freebooters, were cruising off the southern coasts, under the command of two brothers, called **Hengist** and **Horsa.** These pirates were men of large size, with blue eyes and long yellow hair, and armed with long swords, spears, battle-axes, and hammers. Their religious belief made them fearless and terrible in war, for they thought that death on the battle-field admitted them to Valhalla, or the Hall of Woden, the god of war, where they should drink wine out of the skulls of their enemies. Their homes lay on the German coast, between Denmark and the river Rhine. Such were the people to whom Vortigern turned for help against the ravages of the Picts and Scots, and the opposition of the faction under Ambrosius. They landed at Ebbsfleet, on the coast of Kent, successfully repelled the enemies of Vortigern, and for this service received as a reward the Isle of Thanet. The story of the first Saxon settlement in this island rests on uncertain tradition. It is said that Vortigern fell in love with **Rowena,** the daughter of Hengist, and promised to give up Kent on condition of receiving her in marriage. Another story says that Hengist and Horsa, attracted by the beauty of the country, turned their arms against the Britons, and seized upon Kent. For a century after this, fresh bands from the German coast poured into the country, and established settlements on the eastern and southern coasts and river basins. These settlers were of three tribes, **Jutes, Angles,** and **Saxons,** but in the course of time they received the common name of **Anglo-Saxons.** During the century and a half following the first arrival of the Saxons, the following seven kingdoms, commonly called the Saxon Heptarchy, stand out in marked prominence from among the mass of smaller states :—

449 A.D.

KINGDOM	EXTENT	FOUNDER	DATE
1. **KENT**	Modern Kent	Hengist	457 A.D.
2. **SUSSEX** (S. Saxony) .	Sussex and Surrey . . .	Ella . .	490 „
3. **WESSEX** (W. Saxony)	Counties west of Sussex and south of the Thames, excepting Cornwall . .	Cerdic .	519 „
4. **ESSEX** (East Saxony)	Essex, Middlesex, and part of Herts	Ercenwin	527 „
5. **NORTHUMBRIA** .	North of the Humber to the Forth	Ida . .	547 „
6. **EAST ANGLIA** . .	Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge	Uffa . .	575 „
7. **MERCIA**	Central Counties . . .	Cridda .	582 „

The Britons fought hard for their hearths and homes; those who refused to yield to the Saxon invaders were driven to the west of the island; and in modern Wales—the kingdom of Strathclyde, stretching from Dumbarton to Chester—and in Cornwall, Devon, and part of Somerset, they found a refuge, and maintained their independence.

It was in the struggle against Cerdic that the British King **Arthur** acquired his fame. At Camelot, in Somersetshire, his capital, he gathered round him the bravest of his followers, who were known as the Knights of the **Round Table**; and for twenty-four years he fought bravely for his kingdom, and conquered the Saxons in twelve battles. He is said to have been mortally wounded in a war with his rebellious nephew, Modred, and buried at Glastonbury.

542 A.D.

We have seen that at the close of the sixth century there were seven prominent Saxon kingdoms established in Britain. These, however, did not long maintain their independence. Wars arose between them; the kingdoms were gradually reduced in number, till, in the beginning of the ninth century, they were united under one head. During these struggles for supremacy, the king who acquired dominion over the others was called by the title of **Bretwalda**, a word meaning 'supreme ruler.' There were, in all, eight of these rulers. Of these, the first was **Ella** of Kent; the second, **Ceawlin** of Wessex; the third, **Ethelbert** of Kent. East

Anglia supplied the fourth; Northumbria, the next three; and Wessex, the eighth and last.

During the rule of the third Bretwalda, Ethelbert of Kent, Christianity was introduced into his kingdom. The Saxon tribes, hating the Christian faith of the conquered Britons, continued their idolatrous worship long after their settlement in the island. In the year 597 A.D., Augustine, with forty monks, was sent by Pope Gregory of Rome to convert the English. They first came to the kingdom of Kent, and there received a favourable reception, chiefly through the influence of Ethelbert's wife, Bertha, daughter of the King of Paris, who was a Christian. Kent thus became the first Christian kingdom, and Canterbury, its capital, the first Christian city, which has since remained the spiritual metropolis of England. Sebert, King of Essex, was the next royal convert. He destroyed the temple of Apollo at Westminster, and dedicated in its place a church to St. Peter, where Westminster Abbey now stands. A temple of Diana was also destroyed, and a church built in honour of St. Paul, on the site of St. Paul's Cathedral. Christianity spread to the north in the time of the Bretwalda Edwin of Northumbria, who built a city on the south of the Forth, and called it after his own name, Edwin's burgh. York, his capital, still remains the ecclesiastical metropolis of the north of England.

597 A.D.

Before the arrival of Augustine in the south, Christian missionaries from Ireland, headed by Columba, had converted many of the Picts and Scots, and several disagreements on religious matters arose between these and the missionaries from Rome. These differences had reference to the time of celebrating Easter and to the mode of administering baptism; but there was unity in the doctrines of the Christian bishops and those taught by Augustine. In spite of these differences, however, Christianity gradually and steadily made way, and an united Church was at length formed. Before the end of the seventh century, the last heathen Saxon kingdom, Sussex,

was admitted into the fold of Christ, and the spiritual conquest of the English was thus complete.

At the close of the eighth century, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex, were the only three remaining kingdoms. Between the first two there were long and bloody wars, but at last Mercia obtained the supremacy. During these contests the most renowned Mercian king was **Offa the Terrible.** Excepting Wessex, all the kingdoms were under his sway; and to resist the inroads of the Welsh he built a deep ditch from the Dee to the mouth of the Wye, long known by the name of Offa's Dyke, traces of which still remain. He caused the King of East Anglia to be murdered, and annexed the kingdom to his dominions. Offa in after years thought to atone for this crime by liberal donations to the Church. He gave a tenth of his goods to the clergy, and made grants of money, called Peter's pence, for the maintenance of an English college at Rome. **Ina**, one of the early kings of Wessex, is said to have founded a school at Rome, and to have taxed his people for its support at the rate of one penny per house.

After the death of Offa, 796 A.D., the greatness of Mercia continued for a short time under the reign of his son Cenwulf; but it was soon eclipsed by the greater glory of the only remaining Saxon kingdom of Wessex. **Egbert**, a prince who had spent many years in France at the Court of Charlemagne, and had learnt from that great hero the arts of war and government, was called to the throne of the West Saxons. Under his rule Wessex became the undisputed head of the English nation. The smaller kingdoms gladly sought his protection against Mercia, and submitted to his supremacy. Northumbria yielded to his arms without a struggle. Mercia fought hard to retain its power and greatness, but in 827 A.D. it was forced to submit to the West Saxons, and though it retained for another half-century its own line of kings, they were only vassals to the King of Wessex. Thus, all the Saxon kingdoms in England were united under the eighth Bretwalda, Egbert, and the period of the Heptarchy came to an end. Just before the

800 A.D.

827 A.D.

submission of Mercia, the long struggle with the Cornish Britons was brought to a close, and the supremacy of Wessex extended to the Land's End. The country now took the name of **Angle-land**, or England, from the Angles, the most numerous of the Saxon tribes; but Egbert contented himself with the title of King of the West Saxons. The prouder title of 'King of the English' was first taken by Edward the Elder, son of Alfred the Great.

Of the three tribes that settled in England, the Angles gave their name to the country, the Saxons gave a royal dynasty, and the Jutes, the least numerous, supplied the spiritual capital of the English Church.

CHAPTER II.

EARLY SAXON KINGS.

From 827 A.D. to 1017 A.D.—190 Years. 15 Kings.

NINTH CENTURY.	A.D.
EGBERT	827
ETHELWULF	836
ETHELBALD	858
ETHELBERT	860
ETHELRED I.	866
ALFRED	871

TENTH CENTURY.	A.D.
EDWARD the Elder	901
ATHELSTAN	925
EDMUND I.	940
EDRED	946
EDWY	955
EDGAR	958
EDWARD the Martyr	975
ETHELRED II. the Unready	979

ELEVENTH CENTURY.

EDMUND II. (Ironside). 1016 A.D.

Egbert, after the conquest of Mercia, compelled the inhabitants of Wales to acknowledge his supremacy, and thus all the Celtic people south of the Dee, as well as all the Saxon population, became his vassals. His supremacy, however, was soon interrupted by the invasion of the **Danes**, or the Norsemen. These invaders were of the same race as the Saxons, and resembled them in character, habits, and appearance. Their leaders were called **vikings**, or sea-kings; their vessels were painted to represent dragons; their banners bore the figure of a raven; and their arms chiefly consisted of battle-axe, bow, and war-hammer. As worshippers of Woden and Thor, they felt great hatred towards the Saxons for becoming Christians, so that wherever they landed the people were murdered, the

houses burnt, the lands laid waste, and the churches
787 A.D. destroyed. They first made their appearance in the island in the time of Offa. At first, Devon and Cornwall were their favourite landing-places, because the Britons there welcomed them against the com-
835 A.D. mon enemy, the Saxons. Egbert at length defeated them with great slaughter at **Hengsdown-Hill**, Cornwall. He died the following year.

Ethelwulf succeeded his father Egbert as King of the
836 A.D. West Saxons. By his first wife, Osberga, he had four sons, all of whom came in turn to the throne. He is said to have been educated for a monastic life. In his later days he made a pilgrimage to Rome in company with his youngest son Alfred, and on his return through France he married Judith, the daughter of King Charles the Bald, a princess about twelve years old. About the same time he made a grant of a tenth of the land for religious purposes. His reign was so disturbed by repeated attacks of the Danes that every Wednesday was set apart for invoking Divine help against them. The Danes at first only came with a view to plunder, but about 850 A.D. they spent the winter in the Isle of Sheppey, and thus gave warning of their intention to form permanent settlements on English ground. Ethelwulf died 858 A.D., and was buried at Steyning, in Sussex.

Ethelbald, son of the last king, ascended the throne of
858 A.D. Wessex, allowing his brother Ethelbert to rule the rest of his dominions. He married his step-mother, Judith, but he was eventually persuaded to put her away. By another marriage with Baldwin of Flanders, she became the ancestress of the Conqueror's wife. Ethelbald, after a reign devoid of interest, died 860 A.D., and was buried at Sherborne, Dorset.

Ethelbert succeeded his brother. His reign of six years is noted for struggles with the Danes, who descended upon
860 A.D. the Isle of Thanet, wasted Kent with fire and sword, and stormed and burnt his capital, Winchester. He died 866 A.D., and was buried at Sherborne.

Ethelred I. ascended his brother's throne. In this reign the Danes began to aim at the conquest of the country in earnest. They overran Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia, and made themselves masters of these territories in a period of five years. Edmund, the under-king of East Anglia, was taken a prisoner by them, and, because he would not renounce Christianity, he was fastened naked to a tree, and slain with arrows. The place of his burial was afterwards called Bury St. Edmunds, and a monastery was erected there in honour of his memory.

866 A.D.

The Danes then burst upon Wessex. Ethelred and his brother Alfred met them in battle after battle with varied success, but at **Merton**, in Surrey, Ethelred was mortally wounded, and was buried at Wimborne.

871 A.D.

Alfred became King of Wessex on his brother's death, in the thick of the strife with the Danes. In this year nine pitched battles, besides smaller engagements, were fought on West-Saxon ground against these hardy Norsemen. Peace was made in 872 A.D., and the Danes retired north of the Thames. Wessex was for a time delivered, but the remaining part of the country was entirely under Danish supremacy. In 878 A.D. they renewed their attacks upon Wessex under **Guthrum** their chief, and captured Chippenham, the residence of Alfred. The king himself, dispirited by his many losses, retired for refuge to the marshes of Somersetshire, where, in the Isle of **Athelney**, between the rivers Parret and Tone, he found a secure hiding place for some months in the house of a swineherd. One day the peasant's wife, ignorant of the rank of her guest, put him to mind some cakes which were baking on the hearth. But he, wrapt in thought, forgot all about the cakes, and allowed them to burn. For this neglect the poor woman soundly rated him, calling him an idle fellow, too lazy to mind what he was ready enough to eat. The hospitable swineherd became in time Bishop of Winchester. Here the king's bravest and most faithful followers gathered round him, and it was soon

871 A.D.

resolved to strike another blow for the independence of their country. Alfred, disguising himself as a minstrel, wandered into the Danish camp, learnt everything he desired to know, and then returned to summon his men for a sudden attack upon the enemy. At **Ethandune**, in Wilts, the fight took place; the Danes fled to their camp, where they were closely besieged for fourteen days and forced to surrender. By the treaty of peace that followed, the Danes were to leave Wessex and that part of Mercia south-west of Watling Street; their chiefs were to embrace Christianity, and receive the whole land beyond Watling Street as vassals of the West-Saxon King. The district thus given up to the Danes was called the **Danelagh**. The extent of their occupation is seen in the present day in the names of places ending in **by**.

878 A.D.

In the years of peace that followed, Alfred strengthened his kingdom by establishing a system of militia, and by forming a naval force to meet the sea-kings on their own element. After this, the Danes had little chance of success against him. Once again, towards the close of his reign, 893 A.D., another chief, **Hastings**, with 330 ships, attempted to gain a footing in the island, and for three years committed many ravages in the south; but Alfred successfully repulsed him, and finally drove him out of the country. The rest of the reign was peaceful.

Alfred's many virtues deservedly gave to his name the title of 'Great.' His whole life was devoted to the good of his subjects, and there is scarcely a name in history that can compare with his. As a warrior, his wars were conducted in self-defence, and his victories were never stained by cruelty. His religion was free from superstition, and his learning void of vain show. His peaceful days were divided into three parts; one was given to business of State, a second was devoted to study and religious exercises, and a third was set apart for sleep and necessary recreation. To measure the time, he made candles to burn one inch in twenty minutes, and constructed lanterns to protect them from the draughts in his ill-built palace. His love

of learning and literary work were points of beauty in his character. He founded schools, invited scholars to his court, encouraged learning in every possible way, with a single eye to the good of his people. He himself translated into the Saxon tongue, 'Bede's History of the Saxon Church,' 'Æsop's Fables,' 'The Psalms,' and other works.

Many things have been attributed to Alfred which have no authority for their truth. He is said to have founded the University of Oxford, but of this there is no proof. The division of the country into shires, hundreds, and tithings; trial by jury, and other germs of English law, are attributed to him, but traces of all these are found before his time. It is true, however, that he improved the happiness of his subjects by establishing a code of laws gathered together from the best laws of his predecessors, especially those of Ina, King of Wessex, Offa of Mercia, and Ethelbert, the first Christian King of Kent; and these he administered with such justice that crime became rare.

Alfred died at Farringdon, Berks, and was buried at Winchester. **901** A.D.

CHAPTER III.

EARLY SAXON KINGS—Continued.

Edward the Elder, son of Alfred, ascended the throne.

901 A.D. He equalled his father as a warrior and a ruler, and was only inferior to him in literary work. His right to the throne was disputed by his cousin, Ethelwald, the son of Ethelred I., who allied himself with the Danes of Northumbria and East Anglia. In the war that followed, Ethelwald was slain, and Mercia, East Anglia, and Essex were recovered from the Danish yoke. Edward, welcomed as a deliverer, became the immediate sovereign of all England south of the Humber, and was the first Saxon King to take the title of King of England. The Princes of Wales, Northumbria, Strathclyde, and Scotland acknowledged his supremacy, and chose him 'as their father and lord.' This submission of Scotland is worthy of notice; for, from the time of Edward to the fourteenth century, Scotland was always regarded as a vassal kingdom, and its homage was one of the rights of the English crown. Edward died at Farringdon, leaving many sons and daughters. (925 A.D.)

Athelstan, the natural son of Edward, was then chosen

925 A.D. king. He completed his father's work by making Northumbria part of his kingdom. The Danes, Welsh, and Scots combined together to throw off his supremacy, but they were completely overthrown in the battle of **Brunanburgh** (Bamborough?), 937 A.D. This king was zealous in the cause of religion, and eager for the extension of commerce. A royal order was issued that the Bible should be translated into the Anglo-Saxon tongue, and a copy placed in every church; and the title of **Thane** was granted to every merchant who made three voyages in his own ship. Athelstan died at Gloucester. (940 A.D.)

Edmund I., the Magnificent, son of Edward the Elder, succeeded Athelstan. The Danes, under Anlaf, again becoming troublesome, were expelled from the **Five Burghs**—Derby, Leicester, Nottingham, Stamford, and Lincoln. The kingdom of Strathclyde was abolished, and the greater part of it—Cumberland, Galloway, and other districts—was granted to the King of Scotland. Edmund was murdered while at supper, at Pucklechurch, near Gloucester, by Leolf, a man whom he had banished for robbery. (946 A.D.)

940 A.D.

Edred, son of Edward the Elder, was chosen king by the Witan, because Edmund's sons were too young to rule. The Northumbrian Danes again attempted to revolt, but the rebellion was immediately crushed, and garrisons were stationed in all their chief towns. The king's chief adviser was **Dunstan**, Abbot of Glastonbury. This ecclesiastic desired to introduce changes into the Church, which caused much opposition. The clergy then were divided into two parties—regular and secular. The regular were those who lived in monastic establishments, and were so called from the Latin word 'REGULA,' a rule. The secular were those who dealt with, or lived in, the 'SÆCULUM,' or world, and who were the parish priests. He attempted to enforce celibacy among the clergy, and endeavoured to turn out the seculars from the cathedrals and chief churches. His influence was checked for a time by the death of Edred at Winchester. (955 A.D.)

946 A.D.

Edwy, the Fair, son of Edmund I., became king. He was opposed to the policy of Dunstan in church matters. His betrothal to Elgiva (his cousin, it is said), the daughter of Ethelgina, a woman of high lineage, led to a quarrel with Dunstan. On the coronation day, Edwy left, for a while, the banquet-hall, for the apartments of Ethelgina and of his intended wife. Thither he was followed by Dunstan and Odo, Archbishop of Canterbury; the former forced the young king back to the banquet. The indignant Edwy, soon after, ordered Dunstan to give him an account of the royal treasure in his keeping;

955 A.D.

being unable to comply, Dunstan fled to Flanders. Then Edwy married Elgiva, but the next year Odo, by a solemn sentence, separated the king from his queen, declaring the marriage incestuous. The supporters of Odo and Dunstan caused the Mercians and Northumbrians to revolt from Edwy, and choose his brother Edgar as their king. They recalled Dunstan from banishment, and forced Edwy to content himself with the country south of the Thames. The death of this king soon followed, and the whole country was reunited under Edgar. (958 A.D.)

957 A.D.

Edgar, the Pacific, then ascended the throne. His whole reign was one of undisturbed peace. He made Dunstan Archbishop of Canterbury, on the death of Odo, and vigorously supported his policy against the seculars. In this reign the Saxon power in England reached its greatest height. His supremacy was acknowledged by the Welsh and the Scotch; and the Danes of Northumbria, being allowed the privilege of making their own laws, never attempted the least opposition to his rule. He annually went through the country to ensure the right administration of justice; and once, when visiting Chester, his barge was rowed on the Dee by eight vassal princes. To rid the country of wolves, he exacted yearly 300 wolves, heads from the Welsh instead of their usual tribute; and pardoned certain criminals on condition of destroying a specified number of these animals. By his orders a standard of weights and measures was fixed. He increased the prosperity of England by cultivating friendly intercourse and trade with foreign lands. Edgar died, 975 A.D., and was buried at Glastonbury, leaving two sons: Edward, by his first wife Ethelfleda, and Ethelred, by his second wife Elfrida.

958 A.D.

Edward, called the Martyr, was raised to the throne chiefly through the influence of Dunstan, although there was a strong party in favour of Elfrida's son. This king's reign was short. When hunting near Corfe Castle, Dorsetshire, he paid a visit to his step-mother; and while drinking a cup of wine as he was on the point of leaving, he was stabbed in the back by her

975 A.D.

orders. He galloped off, but, fainting from loss of blood, he fell from his horse and was dragged along the ground with his foot fast in the stirrup until he was dead. His sad death, 979 A.D., obtained for him from the monks, whom he so highly favoured, the name of 'martyr.'

Ethelred II., the Unready, was ten years old when he became king. His long reign of thirty-seven years was one of misgovernment, misfortune, and disgrace. Two years after his accession, the Danish pirates, whose invasions had ceased since the time of Athelstan, renewed their attacks under Sweyn of Denmark and Olaf of Norway. The multiplication of monasteries in the previous reigns weakened the resources of the country both in money and men, and Ethelred's government was too weak and spiritless to cope with the invaders. The treachery, too, of some of the nobles weakened the English cause, so that in the year 991 A.D. the king thought it best to buy off the Northmen. The money for this purpose was obtained from the **Dane-gelt**, which was a tax of twelvepence on every hide of land, first levied to guard the coast against the Danes. This tax continued to be levied till the reign of Henry II., when it was finally abolished. Payments of money only attracted fresh invaders. At last, Ethelred attempted to rid the country of these troublesome foes by a general massacre, which took place on the festival of St. Brice. Among the slain was Gunhilda, the sister of Sweyn, King of Denmark, and, to avenge her death and that of his countrymen, Sweyn invaded the country in force and committed great ravages. From time to time his onset was stayed by grants of money; but Sweyn, accompanied by his son Canute, crossed the sea with a fleet carrying the whole force of Denmark, for the purpose of conquering the island. He sailed up the Humber, and with the help of the Danish population of the north he made himself master at once of the district. He then passed to the south, and was acknowledged king of the whole country. Ethelred and his family were forced to take refuge in Normandy, which

979 A.D.

Nov. 13. **1002** A.D.

1013 A.D.

was the native land of his wife, Emma, the sister of Richard, the reigning Duke. Sweyn died early in the year after his conquest, at Gainsborough.

1014 A.D.

Canute, his son, a youth of nineteen, was immediately proclaimed king by the Danish fleet, but the Witan decided to recall Ethelred and restore him to the throne on condition of ruling better. Canute was thus compelled to leave the country, but in revenge he cut off the hands, noses, and ears of his Saxon hostages. In 1015 A.D. he returned with an immense fleet and ravaged the south of the island. In spite of much opposition, he soon obtained possession of the whole country, with the exception of London. As he was pushing on to attack this city, Ethelred died, and was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral. (1016 A.D.)

Edmund Ironside, son of Ethelred, was immediately acknowledged king by the citizens of London, but, as Canute was master of the remaining part of the country, the Witan offered him the crown at Southampton. Edmund, however, determined to fight to the death for the throne of his forefathers. In the course of seven months he fought six pitched battles with Canute. At the last battle, **Assandun**, the Dane was victorious, chiefly through the treachery of Edric, the brother-in-law of Edmund, and the chief of the Saxon nobility died sword in hand. Edmund, by no means discouraged, hastened to gather another army round his banner. Canute followed him into Gloucestershire; but here, on an island in the Severn, called **Olney**, the two kings held a conference, and agreed to divide the kingdom between them. Edmund obtained all England south of the Thames, together with East Anglia, Essex, and London; and Canute took the remainder. Edmund died the same year in London, whether naturally or by violence is not certainly known, and the whole realm fell to Canute. He left two infant sons, Edward and Edmund.

1016 A.D.

1016 A.D.

CHAPTER IV.

DANISH KINGS.

1017 A.D. to 1042 A.D.—25 Years. 3 Kings.

CANUTE (son of Sweyn)	1017 A.D.
HAROLD HAREFOOT (son)	1035 „
HARDICANUTE (half-brother) . . .	1040 „

Canute assembled the Witan at London immediately after the death of Edmund Ironside, claimed as his right the throne of England, and was duly elected king. His next step was to rid himself of all rivals. The three brothers of Edmund, viz., Edwy, **Edward**, and Alfred, were too dangerous to remain unmolested. Edwy, the most popular, was treacherously killed by Canute's orders, and the two others were compelled to take refuge in Normandy. In the first year of his reign, he married Emma, the widow of Ethelred the Unready. It was then thought desirable to remove Edmund and Edward, the infant sons of Edmund Ironside, out of the way. They were sent to Sweden, where Canute's half-brother was reigning; but, being a Christian man, he refused to do them harm, and sent them for safety to Stephen, the pious King of Hungary, where Edward married, and became the father of **Edgar Atheling**, Christina, and Margaret.

January **1017** A.D.

Canute divided England into four divisions, keeping Wessex for himself, and appointing earls over the others. Amongst these earls we find the name of **Godwin**, the famous Earl of Kent. Some say that Godwin was the son of a Saxon churl, who won the favour of a powerful Danish chief during the wars of Edmund Ironside. He became a great favourite with Canute, and eventually the leading man in England.

When Canute had made himself secure on the throne,

by putting to death or banishing those likely to become dangerous, he dismissed his Danish soldiers, excepting a body-guard of 3,000. He ruled the country according to Saxon law, and tried to create a good feeling between Dane and Saxon. By the help of his English subjects, he conquered Norway and Sweden, and exacted homage from Malcolm, King of Scotland. His later life was marked by zeal for religion. He went upon a pilgrimage to Rome, and there renewed the grant of Peter's pence to the Pope. He endowed monasteries, built churches, and devoted much money for other religious purposes. He is also said to have introduced Christianity into Denmark. On one occasion his courtiers said in flattery that his greatness was such that the sea would obey him. To rebuke their foolishness, he seated himself on the beach near Southampton, and ordered the waves to retire. Waiting until the tide had surrounded his chair, he then reminded his flatterers that his power was nothing compared with His who alone could say to the waves, '**Thus far shalt thou go, and no further.**'

Canute died at Shaftesbury, and was buried at Winchester. (1035 A.D.) By his first wife he had two sons, Sweyn and Harold; and by his second wife, Emma, he had a son, Hardicanute, and a daughter, Gunhilda. When he died, Sweyn was ruling in Norway; Hardicanute held possession of Denmark; and Harold was in England.

1035 A.D.

Harold Harefoot claimed the throne of England on his father's death, and was strongly supported by the Danish party. Emma, Earl Godwin, and the chief men of Wessex claimed the throne for Hardicanute, in accordance with Canute's agreement with Emma on her marriage, though that prince had not a drop of English blood in his veins. To prevent a civil war, the Witan divided the country between the two claimants; Harold was to reign north of the Thames, and Hardicanute in the south. The latter prince, however, wasted his time in Denmark, while his mother Emma and Earl Godwin looked after his interests in England.

Edward and Alfred, the sons of Ethelred the Unready and Emma, taking advantage of the divisions of the king-

dom, made an attempt to recover their father s throne, but were forced to retire to Normandy. Alfred, the younger of the two, was soon afterwards enticed back, and, falling into the hands of Harold, was cruelly put to death at Ely. Earl Godwin was suspected of having a hand in this crime. As Hardicanute delayed to come to England, the Witan of Wessex deposed him, and elected Harold, 1037 A.D. Harold immediately banished Emma, who retired to the court of Baldwin of Flanders. He died at Oxford, having no children.

1040 A.D.

Hardicanute was in Flanders with his mother, making great preparations for the invasion of England, when news of Harold's death reached him. The Witan offered him the throne, and he immediately sailed to Sandwich, in Kent, and was acknowledged king. He laid heavy taxes upon his subjects, and was altogether a rapacious, cruel, and bloodthirsty tyrant. He ordered Harold's body to be dug up, beheaded, and thrown into the Thames. It was afterwards recovered and secretly buried by the Danish population of London in their own burial-place outside the walls, where the church of St. Clement-le-Danes now stands, in the Strand. Earl Godwin was accused of a share in Alfred's murder, tried, and acquitted. But to appease the king, he presented him with a splendid ship, having a beak of gold, and manned with eighty chosen warriors, all armed with the choicest weapons, and decorated with gold and silver.

Hardicanute's excessive taxation excited a rebellious spirit in many parts of the country. In the city of Worcester the collectors were set upon and killed. The king in revenge burnt the city and ravaged the country. He died suddenly in a drunken fit, at Lambeth, at a marriage festival, just as he was proposing the bride's health. He was buried at Winchester by the side of his father, and with him the direct line of Canute came to an end. Some time before his death, as he had no children, he sent for his half-brother Edward from Normandy, with a view to his succession to the crown.

1042 A.D.

CHAPTER V.

SAXON LINE RESTORED.

1042 A.D. to 1066 A.D.—24 Years. 2 Kings.

EDWARD III. (the Confessor) . . .	1042 A.D.
HAROLD II. (son of Earl Godwin) . .	1066 „

Edward III., son of Ethelred the Unready and Emma, was immediately chosen king on the death of Hardicanute.

1042 A.D.

The Danish line, on account of the misconduct of the sons of Canute, had become hateful, and the feeling of the nation demanded a king of English blood. Edward, the second son of Ethelred, was the only English prince at hand. Since the accession of his half-brother Hardicanute, the English court had been his home. The son of Edmund Ironside, who had the best claim to the crown by right of descent, was an exile in a foreign land, and no one thought of him; he had passed out of mind. There was a slight opposition to Edward in favour of Sweyn of Denmark, but the popular voice and the influence of Earl Godwin succeeded in placing upon the throne a descendant of the royal house of Cerdic.

Edward, on his accession, was about forty years of age. He was a man of moderate height, his face full and rosy, and his hair and long beard as white as snow. His manners were gentle and affable, and his character thoroughly religious. Though the son of an English king, his mother was a Norman, and twenty-seven years of his life had been spent in Normandy. His habits, feelings, and language were, therefore, Norman; and under him the Norman Conquest of England, accomplished by Duke William, may be said to have begun. His Norman companions and friends came over in great numbers. These he enriched

with English estates, and raised to the highest honours in the kingdom. Norman priests were made bishops, Norman barons ruled as earls, Norman soldiers guarded the king's person, and French language and fashions became the rule of the English court. Thus the soil of England was prepared for the foot of Norman William.

Edward married Edith the Fair, the daughter of Earl Godwin, and thus further increased the power of this nobleman. This formidable earl ruled Wessex, Sussex, and Kent; his son Sweyn, Gloucester and neighbouring counties; and his son Harold ruled East Anglia. The northern part of Mercia and the northern counties were ruled by Earls Leofric and Siward respectively.

These powerful earls were very jealous of the king's favour towards the Normans. There was a strong Saxon party opposed to Edward's Norman favouritism, and an occasion only was wanting to show how much the people disliked it. An opportunity was given for this in 1051 A.D., when Eustace, Count of Boulogne, the king's brother-in-law, was returning home from a visit which he had made to Edward at Gloucester. On coming to Dover, Eustace and his followers demanded food and shelter, as if in an enemy's country. The townspeople rose up in arms, and, after many had fallen on both sides, the Norman count left the town and returned to the king's court, where he told his tale in his own fashion. As Dover was under the rule of Godwin, the Earl was commanded to punish the burghers forthwith for this outrage upon the king's friend and relative. The earl refused, and demanded that Eustace and his followers should be surrendered for trial for their conduct to the people of Dover. Godwin backed up his demand by a display of military force, and threatened to make war upon the king. He was dissuaded from carrying out this threat by the interference of Siward and Leofric, and on their advice the dispute was referred to the next Witanagemot. In the meantime Godwin's friends withdrew their support, and the great earl and his sons were eventually outlawed, and left the country. The Earl's daughter, Edith, too, was sent away from court, and

confined in a nunnery at Wherwell. This overthrow of the Saxon leader was a triumph to the Norman party, and honours and offices were freely divided amongst them. About this time, Duke William of Normandy paid a visit to Edward at London. On all sides, he saw evidences of Norman influence sufficient to excite in his breast the hope of one day calling the kingdom his own.

The spread of Norman power caused the people to long for the return of their outlawed patriotic earl, and message after message was sent to him in Flanders urging him to come back.

Godwin petitioned the king for a reconciliation, but in vain. However, in the summer of 1052 A.D., he landed on the south coast, and was heartily welcomed by the great body of the nation. Edward, to avoid a civil war, became reconciled, and the earl and his sons were restored to their honours and possessions, and the Lady Edith returned from Wherwell to the court of her husband. The leaders of the Norman party, who had done so much mischief, were outlawed, and only those foreigners were allowed to remain in the country 'whom the king liked, and who were true to him and all his folk.'

1052 A.D.

In the following year, Godwin died, and was succeeded in his estates and honours by his son Harold. On the death of Siward, in 1055 A.D., Harold's brother, Tostig, was made Earl of Northumbria. The latter part of this reign was much disturbed by the incursions of the Welsh under King Griffith. Harold marched into Wales, and thoroughly subdued the people. Trouble next came from the north, where the people, disliking the rule of Tostig, had revolted from his authority. Uniting with the Mercians, they threatened war against Edward, if he persisted in forcing Tostig upon them. Harold advised the king to yield to their demands, and confirm their choice of Morcar, the grandson of Leofric of Mercia, for their earl. For this, Tostig vowed vengeance against his brother, and withdrew to Flanders. As Edward had no children, men's thoughts were busy about the succession to the crown. It was determined to send to Hungary for Edward, the son of

Edmund Ironside, who, in 1017 A.D., had left England through fear of Canute. He returned, accompanied by his wife and three children, Edgar, Margaret, and Christina, but died soon after his arrival, 1057 A.D.

Edward the Confessor died during the Christmas Witanagemot, and was buried in the West Minster, which was only consecrated a few days before his death. About a century afterwards he was canonised, and was for a long time considered the patron saint of England. There were many amiable and excellent points in the character of Edward. He was a lover of peace, an enemy to violence, force, and oppression, and he endeavoured to make his rule as light as possible. On the other hand, he was very superstitious and monkish, and scarcely equal to the government of the English nation. Jan. 5, **1066** A.D.

During this reign a body of laws was compiled from the codes of Ethelbert, Ina, and Alfred, which was afterwards known as the 'Laws of Edward the Confessor.' These are now lost.

HAROLD II. 1066 A.D.

As soon as the body of Edward was placed in the tomb, Harold, the son of Earl Godwin, was proclaimed king in a vast assembly of the chiefs and nobles and of the citizens of London. The court was immediately cleared of foreign favourites, but they were allowed to remain in the country, and enjoy their possessions. There were two other claimants for the throne—Edgar the Atheling, grandson of Edmund Ironsides, and William, Duke of Normandy. Edgar, a boy of about ten years old, was at once passed over; but William was not so easily got rid of. He said that Edward had appointed him his successor, and that Harold himself had promised on oath to support his right to the English crown. If this be true, Edward gave away what was not his own, for the disposal of the crown lay not with the king, but with the great council of the nation; and Harold's oath was made through fear when he was in

the power of William. William determined to fight for what he considered his rights. All Normandy resounded with the din of preparation; adventurers came to him from all parts—from the north and the south, from the banks of the Rhine, and even from beyond the Alps. Promises of fair lands and Saxon heiresses were freely held out to these soldiers of fortune; domains, castles, and towns were offered to one and another; and thus 60,000 men were soon gathered together for the conquest of England, and a fleet of nearly 800 ships was provided for their transport. The alleged perjury of Harold obtained from Pope Alexander II. the Papal sanction for the expedition; and a decree, called a bull, from its round leaden seal, a consecrated banner, and a ring were sent to the Norman duke. One of the first to attend the Norman court at Rouen was Harold's brother, Tostig. William and Tostig had each married daughters of Baldwin, Count of Flanders. Tostig offered his services, and was supplied with a few ships, with which he ravaged the south-eastern coasts, and attempted a landing in Northumbria. Repulsed in this attempt, he sought the aid of Hardrada, King of Norway. With a fleet of 300 ships, Tostig and the Norwegian king sailed up the Humber, defeated the earls Edwin and Morcar, and captured York.

Harold was in the south, preparing for the invasion of William, when he heard of the trouble in the north. He immediately marched northwards, and surprised the invaders at **Stamford Bridge**, on the Derwent. A short parley took place before the battle. Harold offered his brother the earldom of Northumbria, if he would give up the war. 'But what,' said Tostig, 'shall my ally, the noble Hardrada, receive?' 'Seven feet of English ground for a grave, or a little more, as he is taller than common men!' was the reply. 'Ride back, ride back,' cried Tostig to the messenger, 'and tell King Harold to prepare for the fight.' The armies then joined battle; Hardrada, Tostig, and the flower of the Norwegian army were slain, and only twenty-three ships, the miserable remains of 300, returned to Norway.

The battle of Stamford Bridge took place September 25.

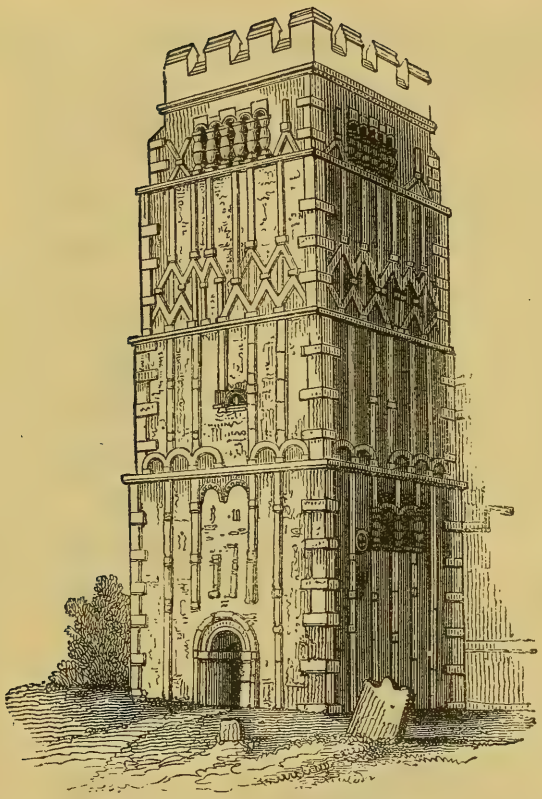
Three days afterwards, the Normans landed at Pevensey, in Sussex, and immediately marched to Hastings. Harold was sitting at a feast in York when news of the invasion reached him. He at once hurried south by forced marches with an army much diminished by the late battle and by stragglers. He further weakened his forces on reaching London by sending round a fleet of 700 ships in the hope of cutting off the retreat of the Normans.

Harold reached the hill of Senlac, nine miles from Hastings, October 13, and there he determined to await the attack of the enemy. A great part of the day was spent in negotiation, but Harold refused to resign the crown or settle the dispute in any way except by the sword. The night was spent by the Normans in religious exercises, and by the English in feasting and revelry. The morning of October 14 saw the two hosts on opposite hills, with a slight valley between ; the English, however, having the higher slope. The latter, without archers or cavalry, depended upon their favourite weapon, the battle-axe ; and, protected by ditches and palisades, they showed an impenetrable front to the foe. The strength of the Norman army lay in its armoured horsemen and its archers. At nine o'clock in the morning, the Normans rushed to the fight with the war-cry 'God help us,' and were received with the shouts of 'Holy Rood' and 'Mighty God' from the English ranks. For six hours the Norman horse tried in vain to pierce the Saxon host; again and again they were hurled headlong down the hill. At one time a panic ran through the invading army ; a rumour spread that Duke William was killed and all was lost. The Duke himself unbarred his vizor, stopped the flying horsemen, and once more restored the battle. The Norman archers were now directed to shoot upwards, so that the arrows might fall perpendicularly, and the cavalry were instructed to feign retreat, in order to draw the English from their position. These plans succeeded ; the Saxons rushed down the slope, and were cut to pieces by the Norman horse. About this period of the battle Harold fell, pierced in the left eye by an arrow, and shortly afterwards his two

brothers were slain around the standard. The English troops, broken and dispirited by the loss of their leaders, retreated to the woods in their rear, making a stand wherever they could to beat back their pursuers. The Normans paid dearly for their victory. Duke William had three horses killed under him; and on the following morning, when the muster-roll was called over, 15,000 men were missing.

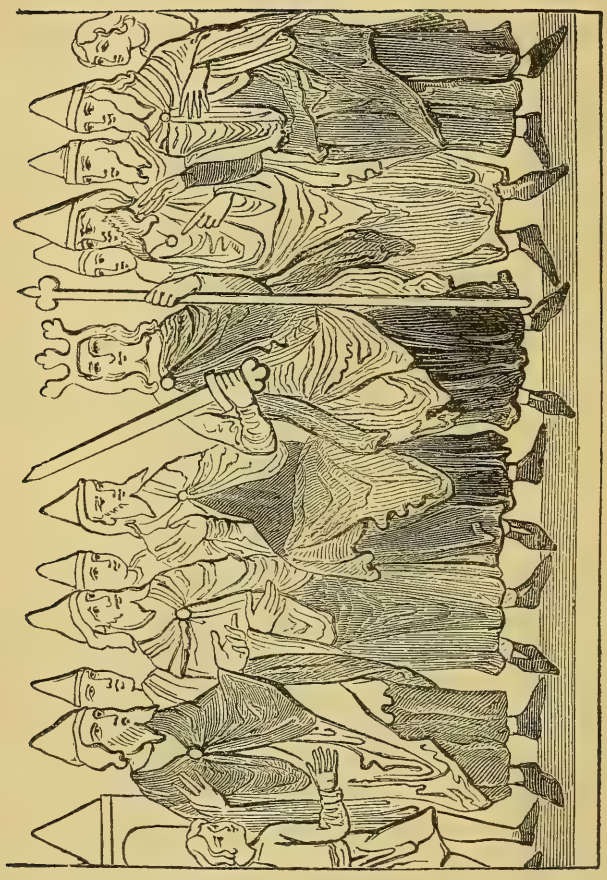
The force of England still remained unconquered, but there was no leader to combat the invader. The death of Harold and the chief nobles of the south decided the fate of the kingdom, and thus the **Battle of Senlac,** Oct. 14, **1066** A.D. better known as the **Battle of Hastings**, gave to William the English sceptre. Harold's body was buried at Waltham Abbey, which he had founded and enriched. William afterwards founded Battle Abbey, near Hastings, and enjoined the monks to pray for the souls of the slain.

Coronation of Harold. (From the Bayeux Tapestry.)



Anglo-Saxon Architecture.

Earl's Barton Church, Northamptonshire.



Witanagemot. (Cotton MSS.)

THE SAXON PERIOD.

RELIGIOUS, POLITICAL, AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS, ETC.

Religion.

The Saxons, at the time of their arrival in this island, were idolators. They believed in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments. **Valhalla** was their paradise, where heroes indulged in martial sports, feasted on boar's flesh, and drank beer and mead out of the skulls of their enemies. Cowards and those who did not die on the battle-field went to the place of punishment, which they called **Niflheim.** They had numerous deities, of whom **Woden** or **Odin** was the chief. Each day of the week was dedicated to some deity, whose name is still preserved in the names of our days. Thus :—

Sunday	*i.e.*	**Sunnundæg** *from the*	**Sun.**	
Monday	„	**Monundæg**	„	**Moon.**
Tuesday	„	**Tieuesdæg**	„	**Tyr or Tuisco** (*a hero*).
Wednesday	„	**Wodnesdæg**	„	**Woden** (*chief god*).
Thursday	„	**Thorsdæg**	„	**Thor** (*a god*).
Friday	„	**Freyadæg**	„	**Freya** (*a goddess, wife of*
Saturday	„	**Sæterdæg**	„	**Sæter** (*a god*). [*Woden*).

There were, besides, other deities; an annual festival was devoted to a goddess, **Eastre,** whose name now distinguishes a great Christian festival.

The arrival of Christian missionaries from Rome has already been mentioned. In less than 100 years after this date the whole of Saxon England had embraced Christianity. Bishoprics were founded; dioceses were formed; parishes were marked out; and tithes set apart for the maintenance of religion. The tithe, or tenth part of the produce of the land, seems to have been divided into four parts: one to maintain the

597 A.D.

buildings of the church; the second to support the poor; the third for the bishop; the fourth for the clergy. Monasteries became general soon after the introduction of Christianity, but their rules were not very strict until the time of Dunstan, who made great changes in their discipline.

The inroads of the Pagan Danes caused sad havoc amongst the religious institutions of the Saxons; but they, in turn, became converts to the Christian faith.

Government and Laws.

Distinction of Ranks.—The king was the head of the nation. At first, he was simply an elected leader for some difficult enterprise, but in course of time such a leader acquired royal power. As head of the nation, the king had the power of summoning and directing the proceedings of the great national council, called the Witanagemot; he had also the right of appointing all public officers, disposing of the public lands, and of holding property in forests, tolls, wrecks, &c. The kingly office was elective, not hereditary; but it was the rule to choose a member of the royal family. The king's wife was at first called queen; but after the crime of Eadburga, wife of Brihtric of Wessex, who poisoned her royal husband, she was named the **lady**. Members of the royal family were called **Ethelings**.

The next in rank to the king were the Earldermen or earls. They were the higher nobles, and governed districts called shires. In the time of Canute the name alderman was changed to earl or jarl. His duty was to lead the men of his shire to battle, to sit with the bishop in the county court, and to enforce justice.

Below the earls were two classes of freemen, Thanes and Ceorls. The Thanes were the owners of the land, and were either men of good birth or successful Ceorls. Five hides of land (about 600 acres) was the least a Thane could hold; if his estate became less than this, he fell to the rank of ceorl. The Thanes were dependent upon the higher nobles and accompanied them to battle.

The Ceorls, or yeomanry, were the cultivators of the land. A ceorl might rise to the rank of a thane if he possessed five hides of land or made three voyages in his own ship. He had the right to wear long hair and carry arms, —privileges which distinguished him from the servile class.

The lowest rank of all was the servile class. These were called **theows, thralls,** or **serfs,** and were made up of descendants of the conquered Britons, prisoners taken in war, criminals who could not pay their fines, and the very poor who wanted support in a famine and sold themselves. In the later Saxon times, freemen were sometimes kidnapped and sold as slaves. The serfs were sold with the land and cattle. They were sometimes given in barter instead of money, their value being usually reckoned as four times that of an ox; and their owner could treat them like cattle. A slave might become a freeman if his master willed it. In such a case, the proper officer put into his hands a sword or a spear, and told him to go where he liked. When a freeman fell to the rank of a serf, he publicly laid aside his lance or sword, knelt down before his new master, and then took up the bill or goad as an emblem of service.

At the time of the Norman Conquest, there were about 25,000 of this class.

The Witanagemot.—This was the great council of the nation, or the assembly of the wise men, which met in one of the royal cities at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. It was composed of the king, the chief nobles, prelates, abbots, and leading thanes, and answered to our modern Parliament. The members were not elected; they attended by right. The duties of the Witan were to make new laws; to impose taxes; to make peace or war; to elect a king; to appoint bishops; to grant lands; to act as the supreme court of justice.

Courts of Justice.—The greater nobles had the right of trying cases of a simple kind which arose in their district. This court was usually held in the lord's hall, and was therefore called the **Hall-mote.** Offences of a graver

character were tried in the **Hundred-mote,** which sat once a month, under the presidency of the alderman, or chief officer of the hundred.

The highest court of all was the **Shire-mote,** or **County Court,** which was held twice a year, and presided over by the alderman and bishop.

Modes of Trial.—A person accused of a crime might clear himself either by **compurgation** or by **ordeal.** The first method consisted in bringing forward a certain number of persons to assert upon oath their belief in the innocence of the accused. The worth of one's oath depended upon social rank. Thus, a thane's word was as valuable as that of six ceorls, and an earl's evidence might outweigh that of a whole township.

The trial by ordeal was really an appeal to the judgment of God, in the belief that Heaven would defend the right. There were three kinds of ordeal: the hot water, the hot iron, and the corsned or consecrated bread. In the hot-water ordeal, the accused person thrust the hand into a vessel of boiling water. The hand was then carefully bandaged for three days, and if it healed during that time the accused was pronounced innocent. In the hot-iron ordeal, a piece of heated iron was carried nine feet in the naked hand, which was then bandaged as in the former case, and innocence or guilt was decided in the same manner. The corsned was a piece of consecrated bread given to the accused to eat, and if it appeared to stick in his throat, or if he shook or turned pale in the attempt to swallow it, his guilt was said to be proved.

Punishments.—The most common punishment was the imposition of a fine. Almost all offences could be atoned for by the payment of money. Every man's life had a certain value, called his **were-gild;** so that if a person were killed other than wilfully, his representatives received from the culprit the appointed were. The were depended upon the rank of the person; thus, the were-gild of a ceorl was two hundred shillings; of a lesser thane, six hundred shillings; of a greater thane, twelve hundred; of an earl, twice as much, &c. A certain value was also placed upon

different parts of the body, so that injury to any part could be atoned for by a fine. It must be remembered that failure to pay these fines reduced a free-man to the state of slavery.

There were certain crimes always visited with death. These were wilful murder, high treason, open theft, and housebreaking. The usual mode of execution was hanging. Besides fines and death, there were other punishments in use: as whipping, imprisonment, outlawry, branding, the pillory, cutting off a limb, mutilation of the nose, ears, and lips, plucking out the eyes, and tearing off the hair.

Divisions of the Country and Land.—The country was divided into counties or shires, hundreds, and tithings, but when, and by whom, cannot be determined. We must bear in mind that each band of conquering Saxons formed a little army, and that each man received a certain share of the conquered land. The allotment was usually about thirty-three acres. Every ten families formed a tithing, ten tithings constituted a hundred, and an uncertain number of hundreds formed a shire. As the people settled down, the tithings and hundreds pointed out divisions of land, not so many families. The land given out to private persons as settlements was called **Bocland**; that is, land held by **bok** or book. Before writing became common, the land was given in the presence of witnesses by handing over to the new possessor some symbol, as a staff, a horn, a twig, or a piece of turf. In York Minster may be seen now the horn which was given in Saxon times with the lands forming the early endowment of that church.

Certain lands were kept for the benefit of the people at large, and these were called **Folkland,** or the land of the people.

The population of England during this period cannot be satisfactorily given. At the time of the Norman Conquest it is supposed to have been more than two millions.

Social Institutions.

Food.—The Saxons were great eaters. The common fare was oaten bread, beer, and swine's flesh. Fish was plentiful. The upper ranks ate wheaten bread, meats of different sorts, and drank wine and mead. They sat at their feasts on long benches around large square tables, and the roasted meats were served up on spits, and each person cut for himself. Drunkenness was a common vice. On festive occasions, feasting and revelry continued for days, and a sober person then was a rare thing to see.

Dress.—The ordinary dress of the people was a tunic which reached to the knees, and was fastened round the waist by a girdle. The carter's frock of the present day closely resembles those old tunics. The higher classes wore a linen shirt under the tunic, and over it a short silk mantle, richly ornamented. Loose drawers reached to the knees, and stockings or hosen, made of linen or woollen, were sometimes worn and cross-gartered like a Highlander's. Shoes of leather or wood were worn. The hair was worn long and parted in the middle; and the men seldom used a covering for the head. The beard was shaven on the upper lip and top of the chin; the rest grew long.

Females wore a long garment reaching to the feet, with loose sleeves, and under this was a close-fitting tunic or **kirtle**; over all was a mantle for out-door use. Their head-dress was a square piece of linen or silk, which concealed the hair and neck and showed only the face. Gloves were not used. Ornaments were common among the higher classes, and paints for the face were often used. Bright colours in dress were much liked by both sexes.

Dwellings and Furniture.—The houses of the better class were made of wood, and roofed with thatch. The poor lived in mud-hovels. There were no upper storeys or chimneys. A hole in the roof served as an outlet for smoke. Glass windows were scarcely known; horn, linen screens, or lattices were used instead. Bare ground

formed the floor, which in high-class houses was covered with rushes. The rich had hangings of needlework for the inside walls, and some of these were richly ornamented.

The furniture was simple, clumsy in structure, but, in some cases, highly ornamented. Rude benches, square tables, or boards on tressels, were found in the poor man's hovel. In the dwellings of the higher classes there were chairs in shape like our camp-stools, and some with high backs, carved high-backed seats, and tables of various shapes. The beds were usually cribs filled with straw, but there were also beds with posts and curtains. The floor of the great hall, covered with straw, often furnished a sleeping-place for the men; and a log for a pillow and a skin or cloak for a covering were considered sufficient. The Saxons had candlesticks of various descriptions and lanterns of horn. Drinking-cups were usually made of horn, and some were richly ornamented with silver. Grates for fires were unknown; the fire was made on the floor, and cooking-vessels hung from a tripod.

Amusements.—The out-door sports were hunting, hawking, and fishing; and every man might hunt on his own land. The in-door games were chess, backgammon, dice, juggling, dancing, and singing. A labouring-man was disgraced amongst his fellows if he could not sing to the harp. At the festive board the drinking horn and harp were handed round, and every man was expected to do justice to both. The games of children were much like the present.

Language and Literature.

As the Saxons came from different districts, there were different dialects of their language in use, but in course of time the term Anglo-Saxon designated the speech of the whole people. This language furnishes most of the words we now use. About three words out of every four now in use are derived from the Anglo-Saxon.

Most of the authors of this period wrote their books in

Latin. The earliest writer was **Gildas**, a Briton, a native of a town now called Dumbarton, Scotland, who lived in the early part of the sixth century. He wrote a 'History of the Britons.'

Nennius, another Briton of the same period, wrote a book in Latin similar to that of Gildas.

The venerable **Bede** (672–735), a native of Jarrow and a Saxon, wrote several works in Latin, of which the most important is his 'Ecclesiastical History of England.' His last work was the translation of the Gospel of St. John into his native tongue.

Cædmon, a monk of Whitby, who died about 680 A.D., is the earliest Saxon writer whose work has come down to us. He wrote sacred poetry. King Alfred translated several works into Anglo-Saxon; amongst them may be mentioned portions of the Scriptures and Bede's History.

There was very little learning in this period, and that little was only found amongst the clergy. Libraries were few and small; if a rich man possessed ten volumes, it was thought a wonderful thing. The highest laymen did not know how to write, and very few of them could read. All charters were signed with a cross.

CHIEF EVENTS AND DATES.

Arrival of the Saxons	449	A.D.
Introduction of Christianity by Augustine	597	„
First Arrival of the Danes	787	„
Egbert's Supremacy	827	„
Alfred's Retreat to Athelney, and subsequent Defeat of Guthrum	878	„
The name 'King of England' first assumed by Edward the Elder	901	„
The Bible first Translated into Anglo-Saxon	937	„
Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury	958	„
Wolves' Heads given as Tribute by the Welsh	960	„
Tax called Dane-gelt first levied	991	„
Massacre of Danes by Ethelred	1002	„
Sweyn, King of Denmark, conquers England	1013	„
Division of England between Canute and Edmund Ironside	1016	„
Battle of Stamford Bridge	1066	„
Battle of Hastings	1066	„

GENEALOGICAL TABLES,
CONNECTING THE SAXON AND NORMAN LINES.

THE SAXON LINE.

EGBERT.

ETHELWULF.

ETHELBALD. **ETHELBERT.** **ETHELRED I.** **ALFRED the GREAT.**

EDWARD the ELDER.

ATHELSTAN. **EDMUND I.** **EDRED.**

EDWY. **EDGAR.**

EDWARD the Martyr. **ETHELRED II.** *m.* 1. Elfleda.
2. **EMMA of Normandy**

EDMUND IRONSIDE, (by Elfleda.) **EDWARD the Confessor,** (by Emma.) ALFRED, (by Emma.)

EDMUND. EDWARD the Outlaw.

EDGAR ATHELING. MARGARET, *m.* Malcolm III. of Scotland.

MATILDA, *m.* **HENRY I. of England.**

THE NORMAN LINE.

ROLLO the Sea King, first Duke of Normandy, d. 931 A.D.

WILLIAM.

RICHARD I.

RICHARD II. **EMMA,** *m.* Ethelred II. of England.

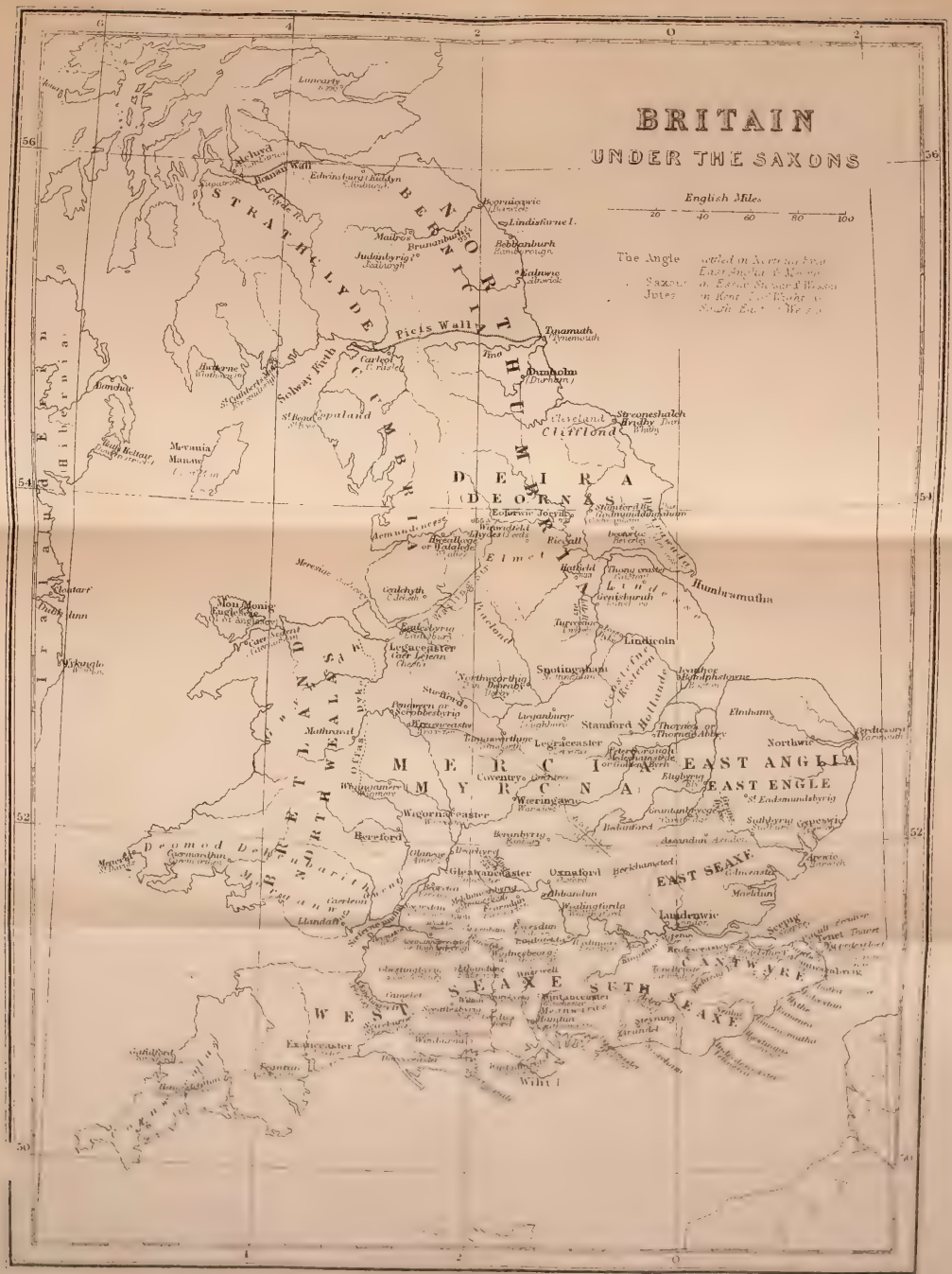
RICHARD III. ROBERT (the devil).

WILLIAM I. (the Conqueror), *m.* Matilda of Flanders.

ROBERT. RICHARD. **WILLIAM II.** (Rufus). **HENRY I.** *m.* Matilda of Scotland. ADELA, *m.* Stephen of Blois.

STEPHEN.

BRITAIN
6
4
2
0
2
50
Luncarty
A.990
Iona
Caer Brigion (Brigstock) Brent
Acemannaceaster or Bathanbyrig Bath
Wodnesbeorg? Woodborough
Englefield
Readingas (Reading)
Basingstoke
Kingston
Farnham
Guildford
Professeaster (Rochester)
Eaglesham (Aylesford)
Wippedesfloet (Upchurch) Goodwin Sands
Cantwarabyrig (Canterbury)
CANTWARE (KENT)
Tonebricge (Tunbridge)
Merewag
Dofra (Dover)
Rolvestan
Hythe
Rumenea
Limene-mutha
Hestingus (Hastings)
Andredesceaster? Pevensea
Glæstingbyrig (Glastonbury)
Eadandune (Edington)
Wherwell
Cantuarabyrig (Canterbury)
Camelet
Wilton (Old Sarum)
Searobyrig
Winteanceaster (Winchester)
Meanwara
Hamtun (Southampton)
Acted (Odiham)
Steyning
Arundel
Selnæ
Scorehan
Gifeceaster (Chichester)
Portesmuth (Portsmouth)
Wiht I.
Wihtgaraburg (Carisbrook)
Portgeate (Portchester)
Scireburne (Sherborne)
Wimborne Minster
Wimburna
Scaftesbyrig (Shaftesbury)
Cerdicesford
Exanceaster (Exeter)
Dorceceaster
Teignton (Teignmouth)
Gafulford (Camelford)
Bengestesdun (Kingston Down)
Cornwalia
WEST SEAXE
SUTH SEAXE
FRANCIA


BRITAIN
UNDER THE SAXONS
English Miles
20 40 60 80 100
The Angle settled in Northumberland East Anglia & Mercia
Saxons in Essex Sussex & Wessex
Jutes in Kent Isle of Wight &c
STRATHCLYDE
BERNICIA
NORTHUMBRIA
Picts Wall
Roman Wall
Solway Firth
CUMBRIA
Cumberland
Westmoreland
DEIRA
(DEORNAS)
Elmet
Lindsey
MERCIA
EAST ANGLIA
EAST ENGLE
EAST SEAXE
SOUTH SEAXE
WEST SEAXE
KENT
WESSEX
Wihtwara
Lincoln
Nottingham
Leicester
Northampton
Stamford
Thorney Abbey
Northwic
Elmham
Huntingdon
Cambridge
Bedford
Oxford
Abingdon
Wallingford
Reading
Winchester
Andover
Basingstoke
Chichester
Lundenwic
Canterbury
Rochester
Sudbury
Dunwich
Ipswich
Colchester
Maldon
Hertford
Verulamium
Tamworth
Lichfield
Stafford
Chester
Shrewsbury
Worcester
Gloucester
Hereford
Coventry
Warwick
Wigornaceaster
Legeaceaster
Deva
Exeter
Exancester
Carlisle
Dumbarton
Edinburgh
Lindisfarne I.
Bebbanburh
Melrose
Jedburgh
Ettrick Forest
Selkirk
Peebles
Dumfries
Galloway
Whithorn
Ayr
Kintyre
Argyll
Iona
Mull
Skye
Lewis
Orkney
Shetland
Caithness
Sutherland
Ross
Inverness
Moray
Aberdeen
Angus
Fife
Perth
Stirling
Dunbarton
Glasgow
Lanark
Ayrshire
Renfrew
Bute
Arran
Isle of Man
Anglesey
Caernarvon
Merioneth
Cardigan
Pembroke
Carmarthen
Brecon
Glamorgan
Monmouth
Gwent
Dyfed
Gwynedd
Powys
Clwyd
Ireland
Irish Sea
Bristol Channel
English Channel
Severn
Thames
Humber
Wash
Mersey
Dee
Trent
Ouse
Tyne
Forth
Clyde
Tweed
Solway Firth

THE NORMAN KINGS.

1066 A.D.—1154 A.D.

WILLIAM I.	1066 A.D.
WILLIAM II. (son)	1087 „
HENRY I. (brother)	1100 „
STEPHEN (nephew)	1135 „

WILLIAM I. (the Conqueror).

Born 1027 A.D. Began to Reign 1066 A.D. Died 1087 A.D.

Conduct of the Saxons.
Completion of the Conquest.
Wars in France.
Death, burial, and character.
Results of the Norman Conquest.
Miscellaneous events and facts.

Conduct of the Saxons.

After the Battle of Hastings, the Saxons retired to London. The Witan immediately assembled, and elected Edgar Atheling king; but disunion soon crept in amongst them. The old jealousies between the north and the south were too strong, and Edwin and Morcar, the two powerful northern earls, withdrew from London, and left the southern Saxons to shift for themselves.

In the meanwhile, William, disappointed and angry on account of the conduct of the Witan, ravaged the southern counties, marched across the Thames, and pitched his camp at Berkhampstead, for the purpose of cutting off London from the north. The Norman horse advanced to the walls of London, and prevented supplies of men and provisions from entering it. There was now no valiant leader amongst the Saxons; Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury, was the only man of spirit amongst them, but his influence was small. Without enthusiasm, without a

fitting leader, a victorious enemy at the very walls of the city, and the prospect of famine within, the Saxons submitted. A deputation of the chief nobles and citizens of London, headed by Edgar Atheling and Stigand, waited upon William at Berkhampstead, offered him the crown of England, and did homage to him as their king. William in return promised to respect their laws and confirm their old liberties. Henceforth, opposition to the Conqueror was treason. Christmas Day was chosen for the coronation. Surrounded with his soldiers, the Duke marched to Westminster Abbey, and was there anointed king by Aldred, Archbishop of York. A sad tragedy, however, darkened that day of apparent rejoicing. When the Saxons were asked whether they were willing to receive the Duke of Normandy for king, their shouts of assent were mistaken by the Norman horsemen outside for the war-cry of insurrection, and immediately the unarmed bystanders were cut down, the houses around were set on fire, and the city plundered. William himself trembled within the sacred building as the cries of the murdered people rent the air, and the coronation service was hurried over in the quickest possible manner. Thus a Norman duke ascended the English throne; but many years passed before his sway over the whole country was acknowledged.

Completion of the Conquest.

William commenced his reign with a desire to win the affection of the English. He promoted marriages between his countrymen and his new subjects, and endeavoured to rule according to the old Saxon laws and customs. With the lands belonging to the Crown and with the forfeited estates of Harold's family he rewarded his followers, without robbing his new subjects of their property. The northern earls sent in their submission, and everything promised to turn out peacefully. Having fortified London, Dover, and other important places, he went back to Normandy, Easter, 1067 A.D., accompanied by the chief English nobles, among whom were Edgar Atheling, Edwin

and Morcar, and the primate Stigand. In his absence, the government of England was left in the hands of his half-brother, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitz-Osborn. These rulers had none of the prudence and moderation of William; and their cruelty, insolence, and rapacity were copied by the soldiery under their command. Houses were pillaged; the women were insulted, and the whole people treated as a conquered and despised race. Insurrections followed this conduct, and the cry of 'Down with the Normans!' was heard everywhere. William hurried back from Normandy, December 2, 1067, determined to crush the English with severe measures. Exeter, Oxford, Warwick, Derby, Nottingham, and Lincoln were reduced, and castles were erected to ensure their submission. On the borders of Wales the same success attended the Norman arms. William pushed to the north, defeated the Northumbrians on the banks of the Humber, and captured York. The chief nobles fled to the court of Malcolm of Scotland for protection. The Normans, flushed with success, hastened to Durham, where on the very night of their arrival every man of them was cut to pieces. In the same year, the sons of Harold came over from Ireland, and called to arms the men of Devonshire, but the rising proved fruitless.

A Danish fleet of two hundred and forty ships sailed up the Humber to aid the Northumbrians. The exiled nobles and Scottish allies came from the north, and the two united forces captured York and put the Norman garrison to the sword. William again marched northwards, and took a terrible revenge. The whole country between the Humber and the Tyne was scoured and laid waste by his troops. Villages were burnt, the crops were destroyed, the peasantry were slaughtered, and for a space of sixty miles the country was made a desert. For nine years, famine reigned throughout that district, and destroyed those whom the sword had spared. **1069 A.D.**

In other parts of England opposition to the Normans still continued. Frequent rebellions gave to the Conqueror

the opportunity of seizing estates which he bestowed upon his countrymen. The bravest of the English withdrew to the woods and carried on a guerilla warfare against the invaders of their homes. **Hereward**, a Saxon Thane, established a 'camp of refuge' in the Isle of Ely, and was there joined by Stigand, Morcar, and others; and thence he warred successfully against all the Normans in the neighbourhood. William, by building a causeway two miles across the marsh, captured this last refuge of English freedom. Hereward himself escaped, and continued to make such havoc amongst his enemies, that they gladly offered him peace on his own terms. He at last, however, fell a prey to Norman assassins. 'Had there been three such in England,' said a Norman poet, 'William could never have come there; and, had Hereward lived, he would have driven out the invaders.' Morcar and other surviving leaders of the 'camp of refuge' were imprisoned for life.

William was now at leisure to attend to Malcolm of Scotland. He advanced into Scotland for the purpose of punishing the King for his assistance to the Saxons; but on the banks of the Tay Malcolm sent in his submission and acknowledged himself as a vassal of the English crown. Edgar Atheling, who was then at the Scottish court, gave up his pretensions to the throne of England on condition of receiving a mark a day from William; and henceforth Edgar and the Conqueror lived as friends.

1072 A.D.

Native opposition being now at an end, William was enabled to visit Normandy. During his absence a conspiracy was made by the leading Normans to divide the kingdom amongst themselves. Waltheof, the son of Siward, the old Earl of Northumbria, the only Saxon noble high in William's favour, revealed the conspiracy, and the affair was at once crushed. Waltheof was afterwards accused of having a hand in the plot, and he was executed at Winchester after a year's imprisonment, 1075 A.D.

1073 A.D.

Wars in France.

William's reign in England, after the thorough subjugation of the Saxons, was disturbed by the conduct of his sons. Before the battle of Hastings, Robert, the eldest son, then only twelve years old, was appointed heir-apparent, in case his father should fall. As he grew up, he developed a character altogether unfitted to take the place of a ruler. In person he was short, fat, and bow-legged; and his father called him **Robert Curthose,** or short legs. In disposition, he was easy-natured, careless, dissolute, and regardless of his dignity. His brothers made him the object of their jests and practical jokes, and on one occasion they so aroused his passion by throwing water over him, that with difficulty he was prevented from cutting them down with his sword. These family quarrels were increased by the whisper that William intended to divide the succession. The disaffected Norman barons made Robert their tool, and persuaded him to claim from his father the independent government of Normandy and Maine. His father at once refused this demand, and said, 'I do not intend to undress until I go to bed!' Angered by the refusal, Robert made war against his father, and attempted to surprise Rouen, the capital of Normandy. Failing in this attempt, he received from the King of France the border-castle of Gerberoi, from which he ravaged his father's dominions. An Anglo-Norman army besieged this fortress in 1079, and during one of the attacks William was unhorsed and wounded by his son. Queen Matilda and the nobles interfered to stop the unnatural war, and, for a time, father and son were reconciled.

In 1087, a war broke out between William and Philip I., King of France. The former surprised the town of Mantes, and gave it up to pillage and the flames. As William was riding round the town, his horse trod upon some burning embers, and threw him violently against the pommel of the saddle. Fever followed, and the injury proved fatal.

Sept. 9, **1087** A.D.

Death, Burial, and Character.

William died September 9, 1087 A.D., at the Abbey of St. Gervaise, near Rouen, in the sixtieth year of his age, and the twenty-first year of his reign. On his death-bed he bequeathed Normandy to Robert; recommended William as his successor in England; gave 5,000*l.* to his youngest son Henry; and ordered his treasures to be divided among the churches, the poor, and his household.

As soon as the king was dead, the courtiers mounted horse to put their castles in a state of defence; the servants stripped the house of everything—arms, furniture, and dress—and fled; and the body was left naked in the deserted palace. A private gentleman paid the expenses of the funeral, but, as the corpse was about to be lowered into its grave at Caen, a man named Asselin Fitz-Arthur stepped forth and forbade the burial. 'The land,' said he, 'where ye stand was once my father's house, which this man, when Duke of Normandy, took forcibly from my father. I forbid, in God's behalf, that the body of the spoiler be covered with my turf, or buried in my inheritance!' The man's statements were proved to be true; his claims were allowed; and on the promise that the inheritance should be redeemed, the burial was allowed to proceed.

In appearance, William was of middle height, stoutly made, with a high forehead and hawk-like eye. His broad, sinewy chest, and strength of arm, enabled him to bend on horseback a bow which common men could not draw on foot. In character, he was grave, stern, ambitious, courageous, and determined. His private life was very pure, and his attention to religious exercises very strict. He was pitiless and unscrupulous in his conduct to all who gainsayed his will, but generous to those that served him well.

His wife was Matilda, daughter of Baldwin Earl of Flanders. His children were—Robert Duke of Normandy; Richard, killed by a stag in the New Forest; William and Henry, who became kings successively; Adela, married to the Count of Blois, and several other daughters.

Results of the Norman Conquest.

It introduced into England a foreign dynasty and nobility, a new language, new laws and customs. The Saxon nobles were dispossessed of their lands, and Norman leaders became the barons of England. The feudal system, by which lands were held under the king, was developed and perfected. All the high offices in the Church and in the monasteries were filled by Normans, and the old English service-books and modes of conducting religious worship were put aside. Foreign churchmen brought into the country an increase of papal power. All law business was carried on in the Norman-French language, and interpreters were employed between judges and people. A strife of races began which continued for more than two centuries, producing a mixed race and a mixed dialect, in both of which the Saxon element got by far the upper hand.

The Normans introduced a higher civilisation, and connected England with the Continent. Their love of art, chivalry, and learning proved beneficial to the mechanical genius and bravery of the Saxon people. In short, 'to Normandy we owe the builder, the knight, the schoolman, and the statesman.'

Miscellaneous Facts.

The Feudal System.—It is most important to understand what this system was, as it influenced the social and political life of the English people down to the reign of Charles II. William introduced the system in its perfection into this country. He, as conqueror, claimed the right of giving estates to whomsoever he pleased, on condition of receiving in return military service and aids of money. The estate thus granted was called a **feud** or **fief**, and also a **tenure**; the grantor was called the **lord**, and the receiver was called his **vassal**. The lord took the vassal under his protection and favour, and he, in return, promised to defend the person and family of his lord, and do him the necessary service. On account of this mutual

obligation, the superior was called a **liege** lord, the vassal a **liege** man. The word **liege** is derived from the Latin **ligare** (to bind). The feudal baron became his lord's representative on his own estate, and lived like a petty king, granting portions of his estate to under-vassals, on conditions similar to those upon which he himself received the feud from his sovereign lord. There was thus a link of service connecting the king on his throne with the humblest freeman in the land.

When an estate or feud was granted to any one, there were **three** ceremonies observed: — (1) **Homage**; (2) **Fealty**; (3) **Investiture**. **Homage** was the expression of humble service and reverence by the vassal to his superior. This was done on bended knees, bare-headed, and ungirt, with hands joined together between the hands of his lord. **Fealty** was the promise of service on oath. **Investiture** was the ceremony of putting the vassal in possession of his estate, either symbolically, by the delivery of a piece of turf, a branch of a tree, &c., or by placing the tenant in actual possession.

The services which a vassal was bound to give for his fief were called **feudal incidents**, and these were of various kinds, as **military service, aids, reliefs, primer seisin, fines, escheats, wardship**, and **marriage**.

(1) **Military service**, or the obligation to attend the lord to the wars for forty days in each year, if required.

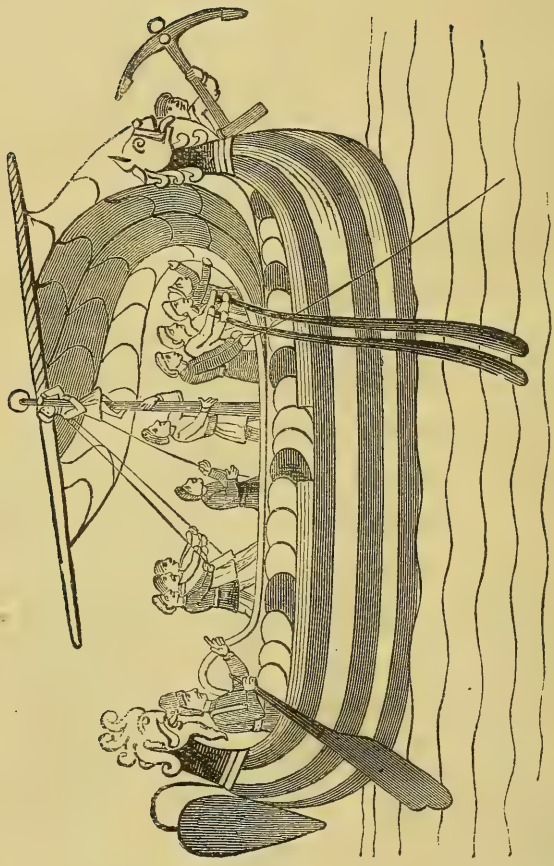
(2) **Aids** were sums of money paid on three special occasions:—(*a*) making the lord's eldest son a knight; (*b*) on the marriage of his eldest daughter; (*c*) to ransom his person, if taken prisoner.

(3) **Reliefs** were money payments, or otherwise, made by an heir on taking possession of a fief.

(4) **Primer seisin** was an additional relief, which consisted of the payment of one year's profits of the land.

(5) **Fines** were money payments to the king for permission to alienate the estate.

William I. granting Lands in Richmondshire to Alan, Count of Brittany.
(From Cotton MSS.)



Norman Ship. (From the Bayeux Tapestry.)

(6) **Escheat** was the return of a fief to the king on failure of heirs, or through treason or felony.

(7) **Wardship** gave to the lord the right of holding the estate of an heir under age, the charge of his person, and the use of the profits of the fief.

(8) **Marriage** was the right of a lord to dispose of his wards in marriage. Marriage without his consent was visited with heavy fines.

Domesday Book.—In 1085 A.D, William ordered a survey to be made of all the lands in the kingdom. The commissioners sent out for this purpose were to enquire into the extent of land in each district, whether it was wood, meadow, pasture, or arable land, what was its value, and what were the numbers of freemen and slaves upon it. The counties of Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland, and parts of Westmoreland, Lancashire, and Monmouthshire, were not included in the survey. The book in which these results were recorded is called **Domesday Book**, but the reason of this name is not very clear. Some suppose that it was so called from *Domus Dei*, the chapel in Winchester Cathedral where it is believed to have been kept; or from *doomsday*, its decisions being as unalterable as those of the great book of *doom*, or *judgment*. This book is still preserved in the British Museum. From its contents we gather that the whole land was divided into 60,000 and odd knights' fees, and that the number of able-bodied men was 283,342, which, multiplied by five, would give a population, in round numbers, of 1,400,000. Allowing for omissions, we may place the number at 2,000,000. The number of bond-men is estimated at 25,000.

The Curfew Bell was a custom introduced by William of ringing a bell at sunset in summer, and at eight o'clock in winter, as a signal for putting out all fires. This was not a mark of servitude, but, as houses were chiefly made of wood, it was necessary as a precaution against fire. The curfew (**couvre feu**) is still rung in some parts of England.

The New Forest was a large hunting-ground in the

neighbourhood of Winchester, which William formed for his favourite sport. It covered an extent of thirty miles. It was said that thirty villages were destroyed, and churches pulled down, in order to form the forest. It proved a very unfortunate place for the Conqueror's family. Two of his sons, Richard and William, were killed there.

The Cinque Ports were the chief maritime places, fortified by the Conqueror to guard against invasion. They were Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich. To these, Winchelsea and Rye were afterwards added.

The Bayeux Tapestry, which represents in needlework the chief incidents of the Norman Conquest, is said to have been worked by Queen Matilda and her ladies. It is still preserved in the public library at Bayeux, and is sixty-eight yards long and nineteen inches wide.

WILLIAM II. (Rufus).

Born 1057 A.D. Began to Reign 1087 A.D. Died 1100 A.D.

Revolt of the Nobles in favour of Robert.
Petty Wars with Scotland and Wales.
Government under Ralph Flambard.
Death and Character of Rufus.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Revolt of Nobles in favour of Robert.

WILLIAM, the second son of the Conqueror, hastened to England on the death of his father, and was crowned at Winchester, through the influence of the Primate Lanfranc. Odo of Bayeux was jealous of the power of Lanfranc, and took the opportunity of a disputed succession to stir up a revolt of the chief nobles in favour of Robert. William appealed to the English portion of the population for aid, and promised to restore many of their lost rights and privileges. By their help, the revolt was crushed before Robert could cross the Channel. Odo was taken prisoner at the capture of Pevensey; but the king trusting him to hold a parley with the besieged garrison of Rochester, he broke his word and again joined the rebellion. On the capture of the town, the English, remembering Odo's cruel government under the Conqueror, clamoured for his death; but Norman influence saved his life.

William's promise to the English was soon forgotten, but not so his vengeance against Robert. He invaded Normandy, and, by the treachery of the barons, soon got possession of half the castles of that duchy. Robert kept on the war till the barons were tired of it, and then peace was made on condition that each should keep his own, even to the Norman castles which William held; that Robert's friends should receive back their estates; and that if either

died childless, England and Normandy should be re-united under the survivor.

The only occasion on which the two brothers were agreed was when they joined to besiege their younger brother Henry in Mount St. Michel, off the coast of Normandy. Henry was forced to surrender; afterwards he wandered about penniless, often in want of food, always without a home, but biding his time for avenging the siege of his fortress.

William did not keep his promise to Robert; so in 1094 A.D. open war again broke out between the brothers.

1096 A.D. Two years afterwards, the whole of Europe was ringing with the cry to arms to recover the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem from the hands of the Turks; and Robert, fired with the new enthusiasm, offered to mortgage Normandy to William for five years for a sum of 10,000 marks. The offer was gladly accepted, and Robert marched to the Holy Land as a soldier of the Cross, to win the renown of a matchless knight.

Petty Wars with Scotland and Wales.

Malcolm Canmore of Scotland had married the sister of Edgar Atheling, and filled his court with Norman and English exiles. Taking advantage of William's absence in Normandy in 1091, he invaded the northern counties. A continuance of the war thus begun was prevented by the submission and homage of Malcolm. The planting of an English colony at Carlisle was a fresh cause of quarrel between the two kings; and when Malcolm next visited the English court, he was required to stand a trial before his peers. This he refused to do; but when again he invaded Northumbria, Earl Mowbray surprised and slew him.

William was not so successful in Wales. The Welsh were in the habit of pillaging the border counties, and retiring on the approach of the heavy-armed English troops. Invasions of their mountainous country always ended in losses and failure, and William was obliged to content himself with strengthening the border castles.

Government under Ralph Flambard.

William's chief adviser in the beginning of his reign was Archbishop Lanfranc, but after his death in 1089 A.D. the king's rapacious, lustful, and cruel disposition showed itself stronger than ever. A new adviser was found in **Ralph Flambard**, a Norman ecclesiastic of worthless character, who had settled in England under Edward the Confessor. He taught the king to consider bishoprics as ordinary fiefs which he might give or keep at his pleasure; and the consequence was, that when a bishop or abbot died, the post was kept vacant for years, and its income went into the king's pocket. The archbishopric of Canterbury, for instance, was kept vacant for four years, and when Anselm was appointed to succeed Lanfranc, he was expected to give a handsome fine to the king. Ralph, full of mischief, suggested many other unjust ways of filling the king's purse, and this conduct brought down upon his head the curses of rich and poor. At court, too, he was so hated that a plot to carry him off to sea was set on foot; but by means of bribes he escaped out of the hands of his captors. He afterwards received the rich bishopric of Durham as a reward for his services.

Death and Character of Rufus.

He resembled his father in activity, strength of limb, and in the sternness of his face. His complexion was ruddy, his hair red, his eyes blood-shot: hence his name Rufus, the Red. He stammered in his speech. In war he was brave and active; but, as a king, he was tyrannical, greedy of money, untruthful, dishonest, licentious, and a drunkard. On the morning of August 2, 1100 A.D., he went out to hunt in the New Forest, having drunk rather harder than usual. That evening his body was found in the forest, with an arrow in his heart, by some charcoal-burners, who took it in a cart to Winchester. The belief of the time was, that a knight named Sir Walter Tyrrell had accidentally shot the

Aug. 2, **1100** A.D.

king; but Tyrrell, years afterwards, when he had nothing to hope or fear, denied that he was in the same part of the forest as the king. Prince Henry was in the forest that day, and no one had a greater interest in his brother's death than himself. However, the life of Rufus was not such as men cared to value, and no one mourned his death or honoured his tomb. He was never married.

Miscellaneous Facts.

The Crusades began in this reign, and continued for about two hundred years. About the year 1065 A.D., the Turks became masters of Jerusalem, and treated the Christian pilgrims who visited the Holy City with great cruelty. One of these pilgrims, **Peter the Hermit**, a French monk, was so indignant at the conduct of the Turks, that, on his return, he applied to Pope Urban II. for permission to preach throughout Christendom a holy war against them. Men of all ranks flew to arms for the purpose of driving the infidels out of the Holy Land, and an undisciplined multitude, under Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless, set out on the first Crusade; but most of them fell by famine or the sword. The chivalry of Europe followed afterwards under Godfrey of Bouillon, Robert of Normandy, and others; and after hard fighting, Jerusalem was captured, and Godfrey made king. These wars were called **Crusades** from the figure of a cross which the volunteers for these expeditions wore on the left shoulder.

1065 A.D.

1095 A.D.

1099 A.D.

Westminster Hall, a stone bridge over the Thames, and a wall round the Tower of London, were built in this reign.

In the last year of William's reign, the sea overflowed the estates of Earl Godwin, in Kent, causing great destruction to men and cattle, and forming what are now called the **Goodwin Sands.**

HENRY I. (Beauclerk).

Born 1070 A.D. Began to Reign 1100 A.D. Died 1135 A.D.

Accession and Marriage.
Conquest of Normandy.
Loss of the 'White Ship.'
Death and Character.
Dispute with the Pope upon Investiture.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Accession and Marriage.

HENRY, the youngest son of the Conqueror, hurried to Winchester as soon as he heard of his brother's death, and claimed the royal treasures. His eldest brother Robert was away in the Crusades, and there was no one at home to oppose his claim to the throne. As Anselm, the primate, was an exile on the Continent, the coronation was performed by the Bishop of London, two days after the death of Rufus. Henry's first object was to make as many friends as possible before his brother should return. He won over the clergy by filling up the vacant livings; he bribed the nobles with grants of money; and pleased all classes with promises of reform and the restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. To secure further the goodwill of his English subjects, he married Matilda, the daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, and niece of Edgar Atheling. This lady was known among the people as 'the good Queen Maud.' After giving birth to two children, she retired to a convent, where she spent her last years in the cultivation of church music, in the study of old authors, and in ministering to the wants of the sick and poor.

Henry recalled Anselm from exile, and omitted nothing to obtain the goodwill of all the people.

Conquest of Normandy.

Robert returned from the Crusades to find himself again cheated of his right to the crown of England. He, however, at once made preparations to cross the Channel, and arrived at Portsmouth 1101 A.D. Henry now found out the wisdom of the conduct which he had followed in securing the goodwill of the English; for, whilst very many Norman nobles sided with Robert, the great body of the people rallied round the king. For several days the two armies stood facing each other; but, as a great battle would have been the ruin of Norman influence in the country, the Primate Anselm and some of the barons interfered, and persuaded the two princes to make up their differences. In the treaty that followed, it was agreed that Henry should retain the kingdom of England, and give up the whole of Normandy to his brother, in addition to a yearly pension of 3,000 marks, and pardon those barons who had taken up arms in his cause. As soon as Robert returned to his duchy, Henry, in spite of the treaty, took the first opportunity of punishing his brother's friends. Robert came back to remonstrate with the king for this breach of faith, but sundry hints about his own personal safety so alarmed him that he gave up his pension in order to get quickly and safely out of the country.

1101 A.D.

Robert's idleness, profligacy, and imprudence made the Norman court a place of the wildest disorder. It is said that he himself was plundered till he lacked bread to eat, and was forced to lie in bed from the want of clothes to put on. So disgraceful had the government of the duchy become, that many Norman barons invited Henry over in 1104 A.D. to improve the state of things. Nothing loth, the next year the king sent an army across the Channel, and proposed that the duke should give up the government of the duchy, on condition of receiving a suitable income in return. Robert's refusal brought on war, and at the battle of **Tenchebrai**, he fell into his brother's hands, who took him to England, and confined

1106 A.D.

him in Cardiff Castle till the day of his death, 1135 A.D. The charge against Henry of putting out his brother's eyes rests on no sufficient authority.

Normandy, however, was not left in the quiet possession of Henry. Robert's son William could not forget his own rights or his father's wrongs, and he found strong supporters of his claims in the King of France, the Earl of Flanders, and the Earl of Anjou. The Earl of Anjou withdrew his support on the marriage of his daughter to Henry's only son William, but the King of France and his allies invaded the Norman duchy and fought a fierce battle with the English king at **Brenville**, near Rouen. Henry, however, won the victory, and his nephew escaped with the greatest difficulty. The king spent the following year in strengthening his position in Normandy, and securing the succession of his son, who was then eighteen years old.

1119 A.D.

Story of the 'White Ship.'

Having settled matters in Normandy, Henry and his son Prince William set out for their return to England from the port of Barfleur. The prince set sail, accompanied by a great number of unruly courtiers, in a vessel called the 'Blanche Nef' ('White Ship'), under the command of Fitz-Stephen—the son of the man who had guided the ship of William the Conqueror at the time of the invasion. The courtiers amused themselves by making the sailors drink hard before they started, and dismissed the priests, who came to bless their voyage, with scoffing laughter. Night came on before they left the shore, and there was no moon. The more prudent had quitted the ship, but still a crowd of nearly 300 remained. The fifty rowers, flushed with wine, pulled hard, but the helmsman was unfitted for his post, and, in the darkness, steered the ship on a sunken rock off Alderney. A boat was at once lowered, and the prince and a few nobles put off from the sinking vessel; but hearing the cries of his half-sister, he returned to save her. A

1120 A.D.

desperate crowd jumped into the boat; it was swamped, and all perished. Out of about 300, only two escaped going down with the unfortunate ship—Fitz-Stephen, the captain, and a butcher of Rouen. Of these two, the captain drowned himself when he heard the fate of his prince, and the other alone survived to tell the tale. For some days no one dared to inform the king; at last a page was sent weeping to his feet to say that the 'White Ship' had gone down with all on board. The king fainted at the news, and long mourned the loss of the heir of all his hopes. It is said that he was never known to smile again.

The death of Henry's only son inspired his nephew William with the hope of winning back all his rights. He was now Count of Flanders, and a relative by marriage of the King of France, but he received no encouragement from his uncle. In 1128 A.D., he was mortally wounded, in a skirmish with the Landgrave of Alsace, before the gates of **Alost.**

1128 A.D.

Investiture Dispute.

When Henry came to the throne, Anselm, the primate, was an exile in France. On his return, he was requested to do homage to the king in feudal fashion for the lands of his see, and receive the ceremony of investiture in the usual way. Every bishop, like a baron, was accustomed to do homage for the fiefs which he received, and the king placed in his hands the ring and crosier, as symbols of office and possession of the fiefs, in the same way as he gave arms, &c., to a military tenant. This custom made the king the real head of the Church. Pope Gregory VII., in 1074 A.D., forbade the practice, claiming for the Church independence from State control. Anselm, in obedience to the Pope's edict, flatly refused to do homage to the king or to receive from him investiture; and a long dispute took place between him and Henry, during which the archbishop passed three years again in exile. The dispute was brought to an end by Henry consenting to give up the right of investing with the ring and crosier of office, while the Pope agreed that bishops

1106 A.D.

and abbots should do homage for the lands of their sees. This compromise gave to the crown the right of nominating bishops and abbots, and secured for the Church greater independence.

Death and Character.

After the drowning of Prince William, Henry's sole object was to secure the crown for his only daughter Matilda, who had been married to the Emperor Henry V. of Germany, but had returned in 1126 A.D. to her father's court, a widow and childless. The barons, in a great council, swore to maintain her rights, and her cousin Stephen, Earl of Blois, was one of the first to take the oath of allegiance to her. The following year, she married Geoffrey, eldest son of the Earl of Anjou. Henry lived to see her the mother of three sons; but a surfeit of lampreys after a day's hunting brought on an acute fever, of which he died at St. Denis, in Normandy. His body was taken to England, and buried in Reading Abbey, which he had founded. By his first wife Matilda, he had two children—William and Matilda; by his second wife Adelais, daughter of the Duke of Louvain, he had none.

Dec. 1, 1135 A.D.

Henry was a man of middle height, with high forehead, dark complexion, and quiet, thoughtful eyes. He was unforgiving, dissimulating, ambitious, jealous, and profligate. He possessed a good understanding, and was well fitted to rule. His love for his children and fondness for learning were strong points in his character. The translation of 'Æsop's Fables' won for him the name of 'Beauclerk,' or 'fine scholar.'

Miscellaneous Facts.

A colony of Flemings was planted by Henry I. at Haverfordwest, in Pembrokeshire. These people were skilful in the manufacture of woollen cloths, and to them we owe the introduction of this branch of industry into England.

A standard of measure was fixed by the king. The

length of his own arm determined the measure of the English yard.

Payments of taxes were made in money, instead of in kind. The splendid cathedral of Salisbury was erected; and the first arched bridge, called Bow Bridge, from its shape, was built over the Lea.

In 1118, the military and religious Order of **Knights Templars** was instituted at Jerusalem for the protection of pilgrims on the high roads.

In 1124, the Knights **Hospitallers**, of the same city, originally established for the care of sick pilgrims, became a military body, under the name of the Knights of St. John. This order spread over the whole of Europe, and, after the loss of Palestine, took up its headquarters at Cyprus, and subsequently at Rhodes.

STEPHEN Earl of Blois).

Born 1105 A.D. Began to Reign 1135 A.D. Died 1154 A.D.

Usurpation of the Throne. | Civil War.
Invasion of the Scots. | Death and Character.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Usurpation of the Throne.

STEPHEN, Earl of Blois, was the son of Adela, the daughter of William the Conqueror. His uncle Henry, the late king, had brought him to England at an early age, and had treated him with marked favour. Although he had sworn with the other barons to maintain the right of his cousin Matilda, he hurried off from Henry's death-bed to secure the throne for himself, and was crowned at London a few weeks after his uncle's death. There were several things in his favour. The barons in Normandy hated Matilda's husband, Geoffrey of Anjou, and those in England disliked the rule of a woman, and wished to have at their head a soldier who could put down the disorderly outbreaks that followed Henry's death, and lead his nobles in time of danger. Stephen, besides, was popular with the barons, and his brother Henry, Bishop of Winchester, used his great influence among the clergy in his favour. To secure his usurped throne, he promised to maintain the rights of the Church, and granted to it new privileges; he allowed the barons to build castles upon their estates; and promised to observe all the old laws and good customs of his predecessors. The King of France, too, readily accepted his homage for Normandy; the Pope sent a brief sanctioning the choice of the nation; and Flemish and Breton mercenaries were at hand to fight for him. Geoffrey of Anjou invaded Normandy on behalf of his wife, but he

Dec. **1135** A.D.

was driven back with loss. For years the duchy was torn by factions, till, at length, Matilda's rights were acknowledged.

Invasion of the Scots.

David King of Scotland, the uncle of Matilda, was the first to take up arms in her cause. Remembering his oath of homage, he invaded the northern counties, but Stephen bought him off by the grant of the lordship of Huntingdon and the castle of Carlisle. Matilda implored him to take up arms again on her behalf, and the Anglo-Norman barons, who had fled to the Lowlands from Stephen's strong rule, urged him to overthrow the usurper. In 1138 A.D., he mustered a great force of the Highland clans and Picts of Galway, and, aided by great numbers of English and Norman mercenaries, he penetrated as far as Yorkshire. This invasion was marked by great cruelty. The army of invaders was, for the most part, composed of men as savage and wild as Tartars. They plundered churches, killed men and children, and drove the women before them in droves, like so many cattle, and treated them in every way with the greatest barbarity. Like cowards, they retreated as soon as Stephen marched against them, and he was unable to pursue them through the desolated counties for want of provisions. When the Scots again returned, the barons and gentry of the North determined to fight for themselves. Thurstan, the aged Archbishop of York, summoned the people of every parish by the sign of the cross to rally for the defence of their homes. Near **Northallerton** the two armies met. To inspirit the English peasantry and yeomanry, the banners of three Saxon saints were fastened to a mast and set up on a four-wheeled car. Above the flags was a crucifix, and just below it was a silver box containing the consecrated wafer. The English gathered round this standard, and, like a rock, hurled back the rushing, yelling Picts. The pursuit was short, but bloody: 12,000 Scots were killed. This battle is known as the **Battle of the Standard.**

1136 A.D.

1138 A.D.

Peace was concluded in 1140 A.D. It was agreed that Prince Henry, the son of David, should receive Northumberland in fief, excepting the fortresses of Bamborough and Newcastle, and that the Scots should give hostages for the maintenance of peace.

Civil War.

Soon after the Battle of the Standard, Stephen quarrelled with Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, whose family was very powerful and influential. The influence of the Church was on the side of Roger, and even Henry, the Bishop of Winchester, and now the Pope's legate, was opposed to his brother Stephen. The friends of Matilda were only waiting for an opportunity of this kind to rise in arms. Robert Earl of Gloucester, half-brother of Matilda, raised an army in Normandy, and, accompanied by his sister, landed at Arundel. Leaving Matilda in Arundel Castle, he at once pushed on to Bristol, where his chief strength lay. Stephen marched at once against her, but, treacherously advised by his brother Henry, he allowed her to join Robert of Gloucester. The civil war that followed was desolating and horrible, on account of the great number of mercenaries employed on both sides. These foreigners used all kinds of tortures against their enemies, and cared most to enrich themselves with plunder. One of these adventurers took the castle of Devizes from the king, and held it for himself, and then carried on a little war on his own account. He used to smear his prisoners with honey, and hang them up in the sun, to be stung to death by bees. Fortunately, his barbarity was soon brought to an end, for, in an attack on Marlborough Castle, he was taken prisoner, and hanged. In the second year of the war, Stephen was captured in the **Battle of Lincoln**, and confined in Bristol Castle. A great council, held at Winchester, declared Matilda queen of England; but the men of Kent and Archbishop Theobald remained faithful to their king. Matilda, however, was never crowned; her haughty manner and rude language drove

Sept. **1139** A.D.

1141 A.D.

her best friends from her side, and her heavy fines upon the citizens of London for their former support of Stephen excited their disaffection. News soon came that Stephen's wife was marching against London; the citizens ran to arms and attacked the palace, and Matilda was glad to save herself by a hasty flight to Oxford. Suspecting the friendship of the Bishop of Winchester, she attacked his fortified palace, and, though successful at first, her army was put to flight, and her brother, Robert of Gloucester, was taken prisoner. Stephen was then exchanged for Robert, and again mounted the throne. For twelve years longer the war continued, without anything of importance taking place. Once, in 1142, Matilda was shut up in Oxford, and only escaped capture by crossing the snow-covered meadows at night dressed in white. For five years afterwards she continued to rule the west of England, while the east acknowledged the authority of Stephen; but the death of Robert, Milo Earl of Hereford, and other staunch supporters, caused her to retire to Normandy, 1147 A.D.

1141 A.D.

During all these years of strife the country was in a wretched condition. The land was full of castles, and the people in them were no better than armed banditti. Houses were plundered and towns set on fire, if their inhabitants could not pay the money which neighbouring robber-barons demanded of them. People were forced by all kinds of tortures to say where their treasures were concealed; the land was left uncultivated, and starvation prevailed everywhere.

In 1151 Stephen asked Archbishop Theobold to consecrate his eldest son Eustace as his successor. This the bishop refused to do, on the ground that the king, having usurped the throne, had no right to leave it to his son. Matilda's son Henry was now getting into manhood, and was sufficiently powerful to maintain his rights. On his father's death, in 1151, he became Duke of Normandy and Earl of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; and in the following year his marriage with Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, and heiress of Poitou and Aqui-

taine, greatly increased his power. In the next year he landed in England, to claim his mother's inheritance, and the two armies met at Wallingford, but no battle took place, for the adherents of both chiefs were thoroughly tired of the quarrel. Just at this time, too, Eustace, the king's son, suddenly died, and Stephen, having now no one to fight for, agreed to a peace. It was settled that Stephen should wear the crown as long as he lived, and that Henry should receive the homage of the barons as heir-apparent.

1153 A.D.

Death and Character.

Stephen died about a year after this treaty. The ambition that led him to usurp the throne was the greatest flaw in his character. He was handsome in person; strong, active, and courageous; and open, genial, and generous.

Oct. 1154 A.D.

His wife Matilda, daughter of Eustace Count of Boulogne, died in 1153; and his children were Eustace, William, and Mary, who married the Count of Flanders.

Miscellaneous Facts.

A great number of castles, variously estimated from 126 to 1,115, were built in this reign.

The **Second Crusade** was preached by St. Bernard, 1147.

Towards the end of the reign, Vicarius, a lawyer of Bologna, delivered lectures at Oxford on the Canon and Civil Law.

Tilbury Fort was erected in 1146; and sugar is first said to have been imported.

Social Condition of the People in the NORMAN PERIOD.

Differences of Rank.—The power of the king during this period was very great. We have seen how William I. as conqueror, claimed the right of disposing of the whole soil of the country, and distributed it among his followers under the feudal system. This proprietorship of the land made the Anglo-Norman kings almost absolute. The soil of the country was divided into portions, called knights' fees—that is, such an amount of land as would be deemed sufficient to maintain an armed knight in time of war. Of these fees, the entire number was 60,215; thus the sovereign, on any emergency, could call to his aid so many armed knights. The number of knights' fees given to each baron, or **tenant-in-chief**, as he was called, depended upon the sovereign's pleasure; some had only one, others possessed a great many. The holders of large estates sublet portions of them to others, and in this way a great many of the Saxon thanes kept possession of their lands. These latter were called **franklins** by the Normans, and they again sublet portions to others, called **socmen**. The Saxon serfs were called **villeins**. When the king wanted an army, he summoned his **barons**, and these called together the **franklins**, and these again collected the **socmen**, and thus a large body of men were soon ready for service.

As the government was in the hands of a foreign race, the conquered English people suffered great hardships and oppression. The object of the king seemed to be to wring as much money out of the people as he possibly could, and the nobles, to satisfy his demands, fleeced all those under

them. It was long before king and nobles forgot that they belonged to a foreign race, and made themselves one with the English people.

Food.—The Normans were not such great eaters as the Saxons, but their food was more varied and more daintily prepared. The number of their meals, and the time when they were taken, are shown by the common proverb:—

> To rise at five, to dine at nine,
> To sup at five, to bed at nine,
> Makes a man live to ninety-nine.

The peacock and the crane were favourite dishes, and the boar's head was considered a royal dainty. The finest wheat was used for the bread of the higher classes, but the common people were content to be fed with brown bread, made of rye, oats, and barley. The names we now give to various kinds of meats show that they formed at first the dishes of the rich. The live animal is known by a Saxon name, but its flesh, when prepared for the table, is distinguished by a Norman word. Thus, **ox** and **cow** are Saxon, but **beef**, Norman; **calf** is Saxon, while **veal** is Norman; **sheep** is Saxon, but **mutton** Norman; in the same manner, we have **swine** and **pork**, **deer** and **venison**, **fowl** and **pullet**.

The rich drank spiced wines and mead; and the poorer classes, cider, perry, and ale. The wine, however, was often of very poor quality. It is described by one writer of the time to have been so full of dregs, and so greasy and tasting of pitch, that the nobles sometimes drank it with eyes shut and teeth closed.

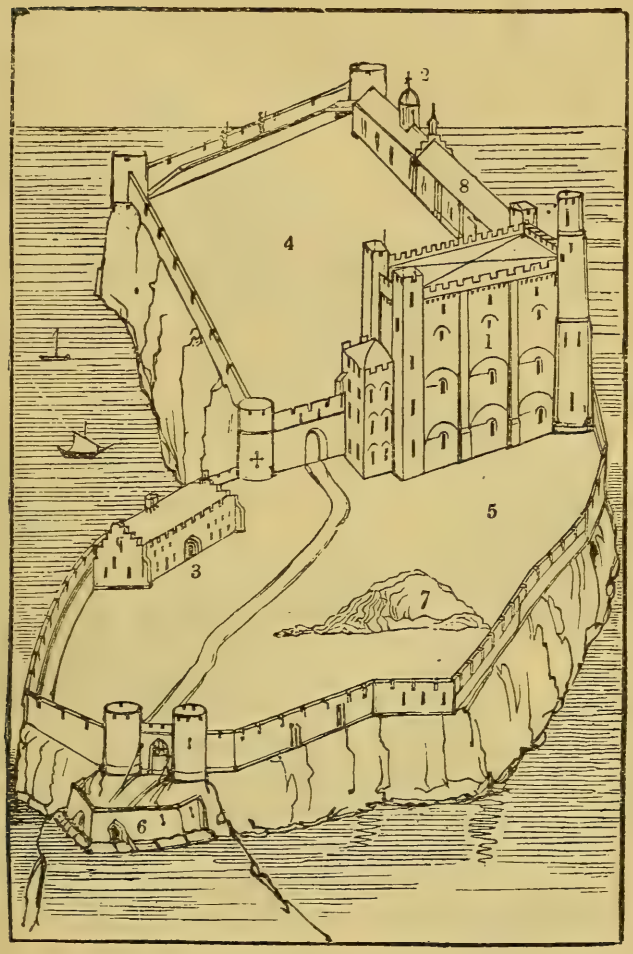
Dress.—The general dress of the Normans consisted of the tunic, the cloak, the long tight hose, the leg bandages, and shoes or short boots. Their head-covering was something like the modern Scotch bonnet. The Saxons dressed as before the Conquest, and were distinguished by their long flowing locks and beard. The Normans, on their first arrival, were closely shaven, both on the face and the back of the head, so that they looked much like monks. But in a few years they discontinued this fashion, and

imitated the Saxons to such an extent that the clergy denounced their long hair as sinful.

In the reign of Rufus and Henry I., tunics with long flowing sleeves, and shoes with long toes of every kind of shape became the fashion. The dress of the females was much like that of the Saxons, only the gown was called a robe, and the veil a couvre-chef (or head-covering), from which we get our word **kerchief.** They, like the males, indulged in long sleeves almost reaching to the ground. The hair was long, and plaited in two braids, which hung down the back; sometimes it was covered by the kerchief, which was brought together under the chin, and made the wearer look like a man.

Dwellings and Furniture.—As the Normans came into a conquered country, their first thought was to build dwellings for safety; and to ensure this, they erected strong castles, and surrounded them with thick walls and a ditch. These buildings usually consisted of three divisions, viz. the inner and outer courts, and the keep which formed the baron's residence. The entrance to the castle was guarded by the barbican, which, in most cases, was a strong gateway in front of the main gate. The passage through the gateway could be closed, in addition to the gates, by a spiked iron grating, called a portcullis, which was let down from above, and the archway was pierced with holes, through which melted lead and boiling pitch could be poured upon an enemy. The grey ruins of many of these buildings, found here and there throughout the country, give us a good idea of the massive strength of the homes of the nobility in the feudal times.

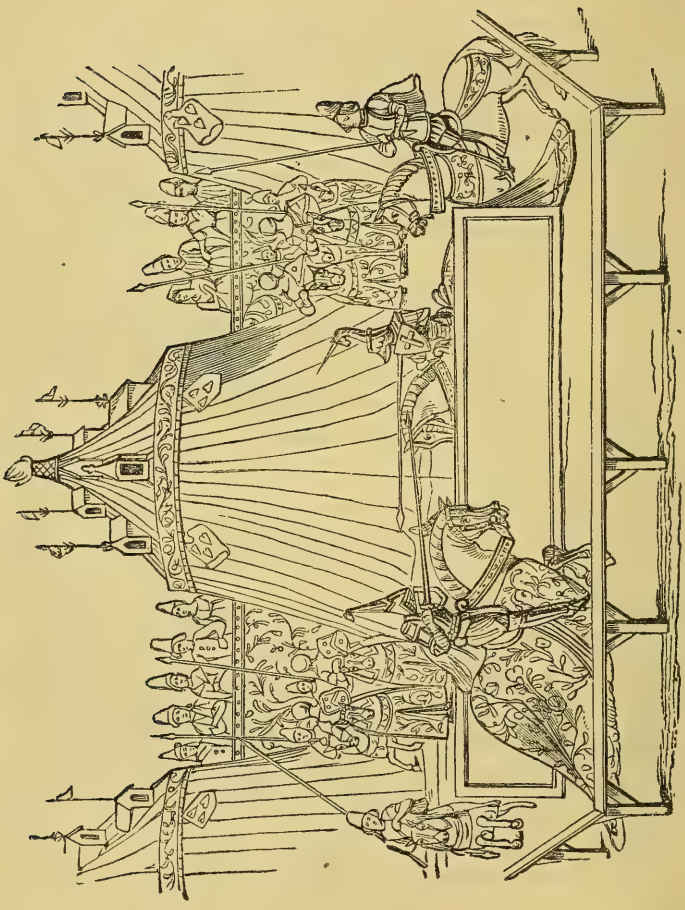
As the Norman barons spent much of their time in the open air, they furnished their dwellings very meagrely. The chief room was the large hall, and this simply contained a long rough table and some rude benches. Carpets were unknown; but the floors were covered with straw in winter, and grass in summer. The usual sleeping place was a bench, or the floor covered with a mat. The lord's bedroom was furnished with a few stools,



Norman Castle.

1. The Dungeon.
2. Chapel.
3. Stable.
4. Inner Bailey.
5. Outer Bailey.
6. Barbican.
7. Mount.
8. Soldiers' Lodgings.

The Mount is supposed to be the Court-hill, where the Lord dispensed justice, and where also it was executed.



Tournament. (Harleian MS.)

couches, and a crib containing a straw bed, and the ladies of the family were similarly supplied. From the scanty furniture of the homes of the rich, we can imagine what those of the poor must have been. The houses of the latter were small rude cabins, built of wood, and plastered with mud, and scarcely containing anything but an iron pot, a pitcher, and a log or two.

The castles and churches of this period were built according to the Norman style of architecture, of which the characteristic is the rounded arch.

Amusements.—The Normans were fond of out-door sports. The **tournament** or joust was their chief amusement. This was a kind of mock fight, which took place within a large enclosure, called the lists. The nobles sat round on raised galleries, and the common people crowded outside the barriers, to witness the courage and skill of the contending knights. At each end of the lists, tents were pitched for the rival combatants; and when the trumpet gave the signal for the onset, the armour-clad knights rushed to the attack. The weapons were usually blunted lances, but sometimes they contended with sharp weapons, as in real war, and then the sport often ended in bloodshed and death.

Sometimes two sides were formed, each consisting of many knights, and this feature of the **tournament** was called the **mêlée**. At the end of the contest, the victors received the rewards of their gallantry at the hands of the 'Queen of Love and Beauty'—a lady who had been elected to preside over the sports of the day.

Hunting was a very general amusement of the upper classes. The out-door sports of the lower classes were archery, bull-baiting, and playing at quarter-staff. Cock-fighting was at that time confined to children, and Shrove Tuesday was the favourite day for the sport.

The chief in-door amusement was the performance of some dramatic incident by travelling players. Such exhibitions were often rude in language and coarse in manner, and the clergy endeavoured to supplant them by the in-

troduction of the religious drama—the origin of miracle and mystery plays, which were founded on Scripture facts and incidents in the lives of saints. Gambling, juggling, mimicry, and dancing were favourite in-door amusements.

Language and Literature.—The Saxon language continued to be spoken by the masses of the people, while their conquerors spoke French. The latter, in consequence, was the language of the courts of law, which still retain many traces of this fact. Between the two languages there soon grew up a mixed dialect, the 'lingua franca,' as it has been called, which expanded at length into the English language. But during this early Norman period, the governors and governed were to each other in language like the English and the people of India of our own time. Even as late as the early part of the fourteenth century, public speakers were sometimes obliged to give the same speech to the same audience in three languages—Latin, French, and English. Latin was the language of the Church, of the schools, and generally of the learned. The mixed dialect that grew up in this period is called semi-Saxon—a form of English which continued until the death of King John.[1]

The Normans introduced the use of surnames, which were taken from some personal quality, or trade, or from some peculiarity, as Redhead, Butcher, Curthose. Some were formed by adding **son** to the Christian name, as Johnson. The Celtic **Mac**, as Macpherson; the O, as O'Connell; and the Norman **Fitz**, as Fitzwilliam, mean the same as **son.**

The literature of the time was confined chiefly to the clergy. The following are the leading authors of the period, who all wrote in Latin:—

Lanfranc (1005–1089), succeeded Stigand as Archbishop of Canterbury: wrote several religious works.

Ingulf (1030–1109), Abbot of Croyland: wrote the 'History of Croyland Abbey.'

[1] See par. 'Language,' p. 143.

Simeon of Durham (1061–1131), a monk: wrote a history of England from 616 to 1130, and also a history of Durham Cathedral.

Ordericus Vitalis (1075–1132), a Norman monk: wrote an ecclesiastical history, in which there are many particulars relating to England.

William of Malmesbury (1095–1150), a monk: wrote a 'History of the Kings of England,' and other chronicles.

Henry of Huntingdon (1100–1168), Archdeacon of Huntingdon: wrote a history of England to 1154.

Geoffrey of Monmouth, who died 1130: wrote Latin chronicles.

The Saxon Chronicle was a work compiled from the registers kept in the monasteries, which recorded events from Alfred's time to the death of Stephen.

LEADING DATES OF THE NORMAN PERIOD.

GENERAL EVENTS.

	A.D.	
North of England laid waste	1069	Wm. I.
Conspiracy of the Norman Barons against William	1073	„
Tower of London built	1080	„
Domesday Book compiled	1080–6	„
First Crusade proposed	1095	Wm. II.
Normandy conquered by Henry I.	1106	Hen. I.
Order of Knights Templars founded	1118	„
Prince William drowned	1120	„
Matilda lands	1139	Stephen.
Prince Henry invades England	1153	„

BATTLES, ETC.

	A.D.
Battle of Hastings	1066.
Siege of Gerberoi	1079.
Battle of Tenchebrai	1106.
,, **Brenville**	1119.
,, **the Standard**	1138.
,, **Lincoln**	1141.
,, **Winchester**	1141.
Siege of Oxford	1142.

PLANTAGENET LINE.

1154 A.D. to 1485 A.D.—331 Years. 14 Kings.

PLANTAGENET KINGS PROPER.

	A.D.		A.D.
HENRY II. . . .	1154	EDWARD I. . . .	1272
RICHARD I. . . .	1189	EDWARD II. . . .	1307
JOHN	1199	EDWARD III. . . .	1327
HENRY III. . . .	1216	RICHARD II. . . .	1377

HENRY II. (Curtmantle).

Born 1133 A.D. Began to Reign 1154 A.D. Died 1189 A.D.

Henry's Accession and Power.
Thomas à Becket.
Conquest of Ireland.
Rebellion of Henry's Sons.
Death and Character.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Henry's Accession and Power.

HENRY II., the son of Matilda and Geoffrey of Anjou, was the first of the Plantagenet line of kings. The family name of **Plantagenet** was given to the first Earl of Anjou, Henry's great-grandfather, because he was accustomed to wear in his cap a sprig of broom, which, in the French language, was called **plante-de-genët**, from the Latin **planta genista.** At twenty-one years of age he ascended the throne of England, already in possession of great power, and with prospects most favourable. From his mother he inherited Normandy; through his father he obtained Anjou, Touraine, and Maine; and by his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine, the divorced wife of Louis of France, he added to his other dominions all the provinces of France extending from the river Loire to the Pyrenees. In later years, the marriage of his son Geoffrey with the Duke of Bretagne's

only daughter put that province also into his power, and then nearly one-half of France was under his rule.

Henry began his reign by ridding the country of all the foreign mercenaries, who had been brought in during the late civil war, and by curbing the power of the nobility. The numerous castles built in the time of Stephen were destroyed; order was restored in the kingdom by the appointment of royal commissioners to administer justice; and the goodwill of the people was gained by the grant of charters to many of the cities and chief towns.

Thomas à Becket.

Henry's chief adviser during the first six years of his reign was Thomas à Becket. Becket's father, Gilbert, was a London merchant, of Norman descent, and at one time held the office of Port-reeve, or Mayor, of London. Thomas, the eldest son, was born in 1118, and was educated, first at Merton Abbey, in Surrey, and then at Paris. He entered the service of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, and his industry and talent won for him the post of Archdeacon of Canterbury. When Henry came to the throne, the aged Theobald introduced him to the king's notice, who appointed him chancellor and tutor to his son. The chancellor's office was one of great dignity. He was the keeper of the king's seal, without which all charters and treaties were invalid; he had the chief management of foreign affairs; he distributed the royal alms, managed vacant Church livings, and was the king's most secret and trusty counsellor. Becket rose high in Henry's favour. A tall, handsome man, eloquent and witty, fond of all games of skill and sport, he seemed born for a court. His style of living was magnificent and luxurious; the younger nobility flocked to his palace, and his table was always crowded with guests.

Ever since the time of Dunstan, the Church had been steadily increasing in power and independence. Under the Norman kings, its influence and authority grew rapidly, so much so that the clergy considered themselves entirely independent of the State, and responsible only to their own

laws and the Pope. The chief officers of the Government and the great lords were always opposed to these claims, and quarrels in consequence were very frequent.

When Theobald died, in 1162, Henry resolved to make Becket archbishop of Canterbury, thinking that he would help him in checking the power of the clergy. As chancellor, Becket sided with his royal master on this question, since his duty called him to uphold the king's cause. But from the day of his consecration as archbishop (June 3, 1162 A.D.), Becket became a changed man. His former magnificence was laid aside; his palace was no longer the abode of the young and the gay; and luxury gave way to simplicity and self-denial. He wore sackcloth next his skin, lived on the commonest food, submitted himself to strict discipline, and thus obtained from the common people the name and respect of a saint. Alive to the important duties of his sacred office, he resigned his chancellorship, and devoted himself to the cause of the Church. Henry was bitterly disappointed at this conduct. Coolness sprang up between the two friends, and very soon the greatest dislike took the place of the warmest friendship.

A dispute arose between the king and the archbishop concerning the trial of clergymen guilty of crime. The latter claimed to be tried in the Church courts, no matter what the nature of the offence might be, while, on the other hand, the king demanded that they should be tried for criminal offences before the lay courts of the land. About this time, there were many serious crimes committed by different clergymen for which the heaviest punishment of the Church tribunals was far too light. Henry, in consequence, summoned a council at Westminster, in 1163, and demanded of the bishops present that they should observe the customs of the realm, and surrender guilty clergy to the law courts. They consented to do so, 'saving the rights of their own order.' This answer so dissatisfied the king that a more formal council was summoned the following year at **Clarendon**, in Wilts, and there the respective rights of the Church and the State were stated in sixteen articles or laws, known

Jan. 1164 A.D.

as the **Constitutions of Clarendon.** These laws were in the king's favour. Becket at first refused to agree to them; but on the threat of violence from some of the barons, he yielded. The Pope, however, refused to acknowledge the 'Constitutions,' and freed Becket from his promise of obedience. The quarrel with the king broke out again with greater force. Henry called a council at Northampton, with the view of crushing the archbishop, and the latter, believing his life to be in danger, fled to France, and put himself under the protection of the Pope.

For six years Becket remained an exile. His character increased in sternness; his haughty spirit remained unbroken; his claims were put forth as boldly as ever. At length a reconciliation was made between him and Henry, through the mediation of Louis VII. of France. The cause of quarrel was left unsettled. Becket was allowed to return to England without any mention of the Constitutions of Clarendon. His journey to Canterbury was one long triumphal procession; the people shouted, 'Blessed is he that cometh in the name of the Lord!' His exile, however, had taught him nothing. Before he set foot on English ground, he issued an excommunication against the bishops of York, London, and Salisbury, because they had dared, at the king's request, to crown Prince Henry during his exile. When the king heard of this insolence, he cried out in a fit of passion, 'Is there no one in my kingdom who will rid me of this turbulent, base-born priest?' Four knights immediately left Nor-
Dec. 29, mandy for England, went straight to Canter-
1170 bury, and murdered the archbishop on the steps
A.D. of the altar of the cathedral.

The murder of Becket was the worst thing that could have happened for Henry's cause. In order to obtain absolution for the rash words which led to the crime, the king promised to abolish all customs hostile to the Church, and to maintain 200 knights in the Holy Land for a year. Two years later, when attacked by his sons and the King of Scotland, he did penance at Becket's tomb, and submitted to be scourged by the clergy of the cathedral.

The four knights who committed the murder were allowed to atone for the deed by a pilgrimage to Palestine, where they all died. Becket was canonised as a saint and martyr by the Pope in 1173 A.D., and for centuries afterwards his tomb was regarded as sacred, and thousands of pilgrims visited it every year.

Conquest of Ireland.

The conquest of Ireland is one of the most important events of this reign. The island was known to the Romans by the name of **Hibernia,** but they never attempted to add it to their empire. About the middle of the fifth century, **St. Patrick** began to preach Christianity there, and succeeded in destroying Druidism, which had found in the island its last stronghold. During the Saxon period, Ireland was noted for its schools of learning, and was then known as the 'Island of Saints.' The Danes, or Ostmen, as they were called, ravaged the country, but their invasion left it unchanged. A few cities, however, as Dublin, Waterford, and Limerick, were colonised by these Ostmen, and in the time of Henry II. they had grown into some importance. The natives, though Christianised, continued very rude and barbarous. The men wore long yellow hair in tangled masses over their shoulders, and a jacket of sheepskin adorned with patches of various colours. They usually went about with an axe, which was used, like the modern shillelagh, on the slightest provocation. Their houses were huts of wood and wickerwork. The chief, who could not sleep in a bed when he came to the English court, was a fair sample of his countrymen. Like the Welsh, they were very fond of music, and excelled in the use of the harp.

William the Conqueror intended to carry his arms into Ireland, had he lived long enough. The Irish pirates had often ravaged the English coasts, and carried off many prisoners, whom they sold as slaves. William Rufus once said, as he stood on the coast of Wales, that he would bridge St. George's Channel with a bridge of ships. In the

year 1154 A.D., application was made to Pope Adrian IV.—the only Englishman ever Bishop of Rome—for a grant of the island to the English crown. The grant was made on the understanding that the king should make the natives pay yearly to the Roman see a penny from every house, and put down all vice. It was no easy thing, however, to take possession of the country, and years passed away before the project was put into execution.

Quarrels amongst the native princes gave to the English king the opportunity he wished for. Ireland at that time had settled down into five kingdoms—**Ulster, Leinster, Connaught, Munster,** and **Meath**—each of which was governed by a native prince, of whom one was styled **Ardriagh**, or war-king, a term corresponding to the Saxon Bretwalda. Dermot, King of Leinster, had run away with the wife of O'Ruarc, Prince of Leitrim, and was driven from his possessions by the King of Connaught. Coming to Henry, he offered to hold Leinster as an English fief, if the king would assist him to regain it. Henry gave permission to any of his subjects who liked to join Dermot. Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, offered his services on the promise of receiving Dermot's daughter Eva in marriage, and the succession of Leinster as a dowry. Three other adventurers—Robert Fitz-Stephen, Maurice Fitz-Gerald, and Maurice de Prendergast—joined the expedition. In May 1169 A.D., Fitz-Stephen landed near Wexford with a force of 460 men, and was at once joined by 500 men under Dermot. The town immediately surrendered, and Dermot soon recovered his kingdom. In the following year Strongbow landed with 1,200 men, and captured Waterford and Dublin. A confederate Irish army under the King of Connaught, assisted by a Norwegian fleet from the Isle of Man, made a gallant effort to drive the invaders out of Dublin, but the natives, unprotected with armour, had little chance against the mail-clad Norman soldiers. Six hundred of the latter were sufficient to put to flight 30,000 Irish. Strongbow had become King of Leinster without Henry's permission; but, feeling himself unable to maintain himself in opposition to the natives, he hurried to

England and promised to surrender Dublin and all the fortified posts of Leinster to the king, and hold the province as a fief of the English crown. Henry and the earl set sail for Ireland from Milford Haven, with a fleet of 400 ships, and a force of 500 knights and many archers, and landed near Waterford. All the princes and chiefs, excepting those of Ulster, sent in their submission, and did homage to Henry in Dublin for their lands. The laws of Ireland remained unchanged, except amongst the English settlers, who lived in the district called the **English Pale**, which consisted of Dublin, Meath, Leinster, and the country from Waterford to Dungarvan. This territory was strongly protected by a line of fortresses and palisaded redoubts—hence its Norman name of *Pal*, or the Pale. Beyond the Pale, the English authority was simply nominal. Henry spent the winter in the island, and returned to England, April 1172, with the new title of 'Lord of Ireland.'

Oct. 1171 A.D.

Rebellion of Henry's Sons.

As a great part of France belonged to the King of England, it was the policy of the French monarch to stir up strife in Henry's family, in order to weaken his power. He therefore encouraged the sons of the English king—Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey—to claim portions of their father's possessions, and make war upon him in case of refusal. Henry's wife Eleanor and the King of Scotland joined in the intrigue, and several of the nobility in England and Normandy were ready to take up arms against their sovereign. In the war that followed, the cause of Henry triumphed both in England and France. After forcing King Louis to retreat, Henry, sad at heart on account of his sons' conduct, did penance at Becket's tomb, in the summer of 1174 A.D., by walking barefoot to the shrine of the 'Martyr,' and allowing the monks of the abbey to scourge him there with knotted cords. The same day, the Scotch king, William the Lion, was surprised at Alnwick and captured. The defeat of the Scots brought the war to an

end, and peace was made, September 1174 A.D. William the Lion did homage for his kingdom, and Henry's sons were allowed certain castles in France; but Eleanor the Queen paid for her disloyalty by a long imprisonment of twelve years.

In 1183 A.D. war again broke out between the king and his sons. In the midst of it, Prince Henry was stricken down with fever, and, feeling the approach of death, he implored his father to visit him and grant him forgiveness. The king sent him a ring in token of pardon, but fear of treachery kept him away from his son's death-bed. Geoffrey then made peace with his father; and three years afterwards he died. Richard, the third son, again joined the King of France in a war against his father, and forced him to make a humiliating peace, 1189 A.D.

Death and Character.

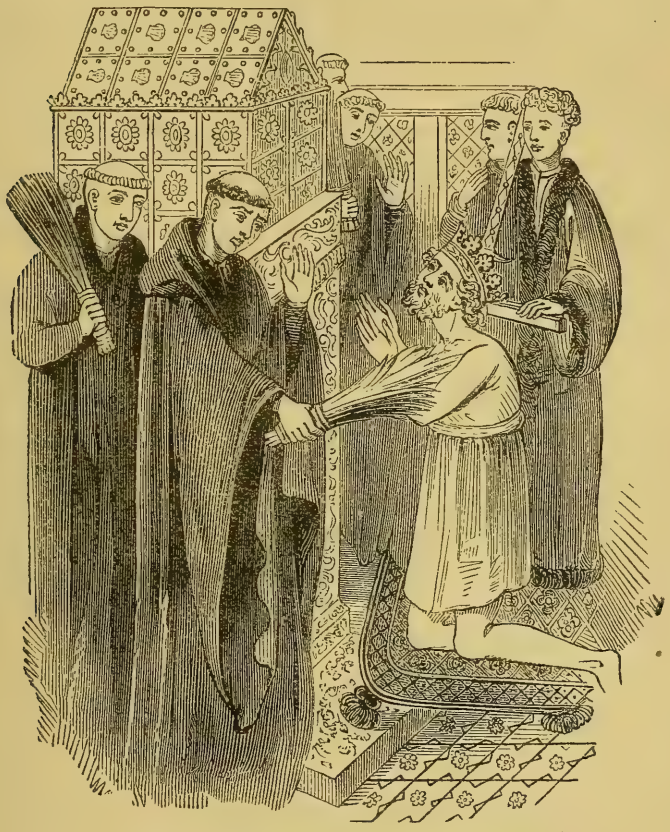
At Henry's own request, a list of the barons who had joined Richard against him was given into his hands. The first name that met his eye was that of the only son whom he still loved and trusted—John. That one name was enough: grief brought on a fever, of which he died at the castle of Chinon, in Normandy, exclaiming, 'Cursed be the day on which I was born, and cursed of God the children I leave behind me!' His body was buried in the Abbey of Fontevraud; and as it lay there in state, Richard came to look upon the dead face of the father whom he had so wronged in life.

July 6, 1189 A.D.

Henry's features were those of his mother's family. He was a man of middle size, and, on the whole, very much like William the Conqueror in person. He was ambitious and crafty; able and energetic; but very passionate and unhappy in domestic life. To win success was his chief object in life, no matter by what means. England flourished under his rule, and the administration of justice was greatly improved.

Of his five sons—William, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John—only Richard and John survived him. He had

three daughters, of whom Maud married the Duke of Saxony, whose son William was the first Duke of Brunswick, and hence the ancestor of the present royal family of England; and Joan married the King of Sicily.



Penance of Henry II. before Becket's Shrine.
(From an Ancient Painting on Glass.)

Miscellaneous Facts.

Several changes were made for the better administration of justice in this reign. The highest judicial court under the Norman kings was called the **King's Court**, or **Curia Regis**, and was composed of the bishops, barons, and chief officers of State. On ordinary occasions the judges in this

court were the chief justiciary, the chancellor, the treasurer, and other great officers. The lesser courts were the same as in Saxon times, only they were subject to the **Curia Regis.** In course of time it was found necessary to divide the King's Court: so the **Court of Exchequer** was formed in the reign of Henry I., the **Court of King's Bench** in the reign of Henry II., and that of **Common Pleas** in the reign of Richard I. The Court of Exchequer decided all causes relating to the royal revenue; it was so called from the chequered cloth, resembling a chess-board, which covered the table there, and on which, when certain of the king's accounts were made up, the sums were marked and scored by counters. The Court of King's Bench heard principally criminal causes, and such as related to the controlling of inferior courts: it received its name because the king used to sit there in person. The Court of Common Pleas, or common complaints, was for trials of disputes between subject and subject.

In 1176 A.D. the kingdom was divided into six circuits, and three justices appointed to each, in order to save suitors the trouble and expense of attending the King's Court. These officers were called the **Justices in Eyre,** or itinerant justices.

The **Grand Assize** was another institution of this reign. Since the Conquest, disputes about the ownership of land had been usually settled by the duel; but Henry II. introduced the Grand Assize, by which disputants might decide their case, if they chose to do so, instead of by wager of battle. According to this institution, the sheriff summoned four knights of the county or neighbourhood, who were to elect twelve others from the district, and these sixteen were to declare upon oath with whom the right of the disputed property lay. The present 'grand jury' sprang from this custom.

Scutage, or **escuage,** was a money payment to the king instead of personal service. It originated in 1159 A.D., when Henry, on account of the extent of his dominions, freed his vassals from personal service in distant parts, on condition of receiving money payments.

Commerce increased in this reign. The Crusades brought the produce of the East to the West, and spices, gems, rich cloths, and gold, were consequently sent to London. England exported flesh, herrings, oysters, lead, tin, skins, and cloths. In 1177 A.D., glass was used for windows in private houses. London became the capital, instead of Winchester, which had been nearly destroyed in the civil war of the previous reign.

The **Constitutions of Clarendon** provided:—1. That the clergy should no longer be protected by the ecclesiastical courts. 2. That clergy of rank should not leave the realm without the king's permission. 3. That laymen should not be proceeded against in bishops' courts. 4. That the king's tenants should not be excommunicated, nor their lands placed under an interdict, without the king's consent. 5. That appeals from the spiritual courts might be made to the king. 6. That the higher clergy holding lands of the king should perform all the rights and customs of their fief. 7. That chattels forfeited to the king should not be protected in churchyards. 8. That church dignitaries should be elected in the king's chapel, with the king's consent, and do homage and fealty before consecration. 9. That villeins should not be ordained without the consent of their lord.

RICHARD I. (Cœur de Lion, or the Lion-hearted).

Born 1157 A.D. Began to Reign 1189 A.D. Died 1199 A.D

Accession.
Massacre of the Jews.
The Third Crusade.
Richard's Return and Imprisonment.
Wars in France.
Death and Character.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Richard's Accession. Treatment of the Jews.

Richard, eldest surviving son of Henry II., and already Duke of Aquitaine, was crowned at Westminster. The sight of his father's corpse, on the way to the Abbey of Fontevraud, had made him penitent for his rebellious conduct, and he showed his sorrow by keeping the old servants of the crown at their posts, or promoting them.

Sept. 3, 1189 A.D.

The Jews suffered terribly in the beginning of this reign. Although they were not on a footing of equality with the rest of the people, and were treated as aliens, yet they had multiplied and grown so rich as to become the money-lenders of the nation. High and low regarded them with fear and hatred; stories of their cruelties to Christian children passed from one to another; and the crusading spirit, which led men abroad against the infidel, roused men's hatred against unbelievers at home. On the king's coronation, some Jews, bearing rich presents, went to the abbey, in order to obtain his favour. They were driven back with blows, set upon by the mob, and several of them murdered on the spot. The Jewish quarter of the city was immediately attacked, plundered, and set on fire, and neither age nor sex was spared in the cruel onset. A day passed before the rioters could be stopped, but no one was punished for the crime. Thus encouraged or allowed, the murderous spirit spread through the country, and Lynn,

Dunstaple, Stamford, Norwich, Lincoln, and York, became the scenes of rapine aad butchery. At York a frightful tragedy took place. Five hundred unfortunate Jews took refuge in the castle, and were besieged by the townspeople. They offered money for their lives, but the crowd outside clamoured for blood. Seeing no hope of escape, each married man slew his wife and children, and then plunged the weapon into his own breast; the survivors shut themselves up with their treasures, and set fire to the building. A fine was levied by the king for the disorders that followed, but the murderers escaped punishment.

The Third Crusade.

Richard's chief ambition was to win glory in the Holy Land. As soon as the coronation had taken place, measures were at once set on foot to get money for a crusading expedition. The crown lands, honours, and offices of State were put up for sale; sheriffs and their officers were removed, that their places might be sold; the right of superiority over the crown of Scotland was given up for 10,000 marks; and the chancellorship of the kingdom was sold to William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, for 3,000 marks. The king felt no shame in this; he even said he would sell London itself, if he could find a buyer. Having by these means raised a large army, he set sail from Dover, leaving the kingdom under the regency of Longchamp, and joined Philip Augustus of France at Vezelai, on the borders of Burgundy, where the united forces amounted to 100,000 men. Leaving Marseilles, the kings went to Sicily, and there passed the winter. Here a quarrel arose between Philip and Richard, because the English pillaged the town of Messina, in revenge for King Tancred's refusal to restore the dowry of Richard's sister Joan, the widow of the late king. After leaving Sicily, another delay took place at Cyprus. Isaac, the king of the island, had thrown some shipwrecked crusaders into prison, and Richard stayed to conquer the district and punish its ruler. Here, too, Richard married Berengaria, the daughter

1190 A.D.

of the King of Navarre, who had accompanied him from Sicily.

Twelve months after first setting out, the English king arrived at Acre. For two years the crusaders
1191 A.D. had been trying to take that city, and already 200,000 men had fallen before its walls. **Saladin,** the Mahomedan King of Syria and Egypt, was watching the besiegers from the neighbouring hills, whence, at every opportunity, he bore down on the Christian lines, and spread destruction far and wide. Richard's arrival gave new spirit to the crusaders. His perseverance, courage, and bravery overcame all obstacles, and in three months the city was captured. Saladin made a truce with the conquerors, and withdrew his forces.

After the fall of Acre, Philip returned to France, on the plea of ill-health. He swore friendship and peace with Richard, and left a division of his army under his command. The English king was adored by the common soldiers for his bravery and liberality, but he was hated by the princes for his overbearing manner. Leopold Duke of Austria never forgave him for having torn down his flag from the gate of Acre. Philip's departure broke up the Christian army; but Richard marched down the coast for Jerusalem at the head of 30,000 men. Saladin, unmindful of the truce, hung about him and harassed his line of march. At Ascalon and Jaffa the Christian army was only saved from destruction by Richard's skill and bravery. In spite of all opposition, he arrived within sight of Jerusalem; but disease, desertion, and bloody victories had so reduced his army that an attack upon the Holy City was hopeless. He withdrew his forces to the sea-shore, and, after repulsing one last effort of the Turks to destroy him, he made a truce of three years with Saladin. It was agreed that pilgrims should be allowed to visit Jerusalem without being subject to insult and annoyance; but Richard, receiving bad news from England, was obliged to hurry
1192 A.D. home; and so his foot never trod the Holy City. Long after his departure his name lived amongst the Saracens. Mothers quieted their children by crying,

'Hush! hush! King Richard is coming for you!' If a horse started at any object by the wayside, its rider would say, 'What dost thou fear, fool? Dost thou think King Richard is behind it?'

Richard's Return and Imprisonment.

During Richard's absence, the government of England fell into great disorder, through the oppressive rule of Longchamp and the treacherous conduct of Earl John. This state of things was made known to the king in Palestine, and he prepared to return home with his queen and attendants. A storm separated him from the rest of his fleet, and drove his ship up the Adriatic, where he was wrecked off the coast of Istria. Knowing the bad feeling against him in Germany, on account of his quarrel with Leopold of Austria, he and his companions disguised themselves as pilgrims, and attempted in this way to pass through the country. Under the name of Hugh the Merchant, he reached the neighbourhood of Vienna, where fatigue compelled him to rest awhile. Rumours of his landing had spread throughout the duchy, and when his page was seen in the market of Vienna buying provisions with foreign money, and carrying in his girdle the king's gloves, suspicion was aroused, the boy was seized, and Richard's hiding-place discovered. The Duke of Austria took him prisoner, and afterwards, for 60,000*l.*, handed him over to the Emperor of Germany, Henry VI., who confined him for fourteen months in a castle in Tyrol. By degrees Richard's captivity became known, and though his brother John and Philip of France plotted to keep him in prison, the emperor released him on payment of a ransom of 100,000 marks, which was raised by the taxation of the English people.[1] Richard's return to England

Oct. **1192** A.D.

1194 A.D.

[1] The story of the discovery of Richard's place of imprisonment by Blondel, the minstrel, singing near the castle a song known to the king, and which the latter answered from within, rests upon no authority, and may be considered as a pretty romance.

upset the plans of his brother, who had done his best to usurp the throne, and who was at that very time intriguing with Philip of France. John, however, was no match for Richard; the Council deprived him of all his possessions for his unnatural conduct, but the king, at the earnest entreaty of his mother Eleanor, at last forgave him.

Wars in France. Death and Character.

The remainder of this reign was spent in profitless wars in France. Philip had taken possession of some castles in Normandy during Richard's absence, and the latter, as soon as affairs were settled in England, crossed the Channel, and forced the King of France to withdraw from those places. The war between the two kings was carried on very slowly, from lack of funds, and after the defeat of the French at **Gisors**, a truce was concluded.

1198 A.D.

During these quarrels, the people of England were heavily taxed. So great was the discontent in London on this account, that 50,000 men, under the leadership of **William Fitz-Osbert**, or **Longbeard**, threatened a revolt. Longbeard, however, and nine of his companions, were seized and executed at Tyburn.

Three months after the truce with Philip, Richard met with his death in a petty quarrel with one of his vassals, Vidomar, Viscount of Limoges, who had found a treasure upon his estate. Richard demanded the whole of it to be given up to him, and, on being refused, besieged Vidomar in the castle of **Chaluz**. One day, as the king was riding round the walls, an arrow from the ramparts struck him on the shoulder. The wound was not serious, but the unskilful way in which the arrow-head was taken out brought on mortification, and death ensued in a few days. The archer, Gourdon, who sent the fatal missile, was brought to the dying king's bedside. 'Wretch,' said the king, 'what have I ever done to thee that thou shouldst seek my life?' 'With your hand,' replied the archer, 'you killed my father and my two brothers; I

April 6, 1199 A.D.

am willing to suffer the greatest torment you can inflict, so that you die who have caused so many evils to mankind.' Richard, admiring the boldness of the man, and recalling his own violent life, said, 'I forgive thee!' 'Loose his chains, and give him a hundred shillings!' The order, however, was not obeyed; Gourdon was flayed alive, and then hanged.

Richard was buried at the feet of his father at Fontevraud. Though he had reigned ten years, scarcely six months of that time was spent in England. He had no children by his wife Berengaria. In moral character, he was no better than William Rufus. His bravery, strength of body, and skill as a troubadour, made him a favourite hero of romance. He obtained the name of Cœur de Lion from his courage and muscular strength; but though his warlike spirit checked for a time the Turkish power, and made him the prince and flower of knights-errant, it greatly impoverished his own country.

Miscellaneous Facts.

The famous outlaw **Robin Hood** lived in this reign. In Sherwood Forest he took up his abode; and there he hunted the king's deer, and robbed all who came in his way.

Coats of Arms now came into use. During the Crusades, armour-clad knights wore devices upon their shields, in order to be known in battle. Richard adopted for his device the three lions which are now seen in the royal arms of England. The motto 'Dieu et mon droit' is said by some to have originated from these words having been used by him as his watchword at the battle of Azotus, in Palestine. Others assign its adoption to Edward III., in reference to his claim to the French crown.

The Mayor and aldermen of London are said to date from this reign. The **first Mayor** was Fitz-Alwyn. The title **Lord Mayor** was first given by Edward III. in 1354.

JOHN (Sansterre or Lackland).

Born 1166 A.D. Began to Reign 1199 A.D. Died 1216 A.D

Accession.
Prince Arthur.
Loss of French Provinces.
Quarrel with the Pope.
War with France.
Magna Charta.
War with the Barons.
Death and Character.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Accession. Prince Arthur. Loss of French Provinces.

John, Duke of Mortaigne, was the youngest son of Henry II. He was surnamed Sansterre or Lackland, because he held no fiefs of the crown, like his elder brothers. He was in Normandy when his brother died, but, hurrying over to England, he told the Council that Richard had named him his successor, and, after a speech in his favour by the Archbishop of Canterbury, he was crowned at Westminster. The rightful heir to the throne was Arthur, Duke of Bretagne, the son of John's elder brother Geoffrey, then twelve years old. As soon as Richard died, the barons of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine appointed Arthur as their lord; and Philip of France took up his cause and claimed for him all the Continental possessions of the English crown. Philip, however, was bribed to abandon Arthur's cause, and the latter became friendly with his uncle for a little while. In the meantime John, having divorced his first wife Joan, granddaughter of the famous Robert of Gloucester, married Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced wife of the Earl of Marche, and thus raised up for himself another powerful enemy in France. Philip, glad of an opportunity of quarrelling with John, was easily persuaded by the Earl of Marche to renew hostilities. Arthur at once joined Philip. In an attempt to take the castle of Mirabeau, near

May 26, **1199** A.D.

Poitiers, where John's mother was staying, the young prince was taken prisoner. He was strictly confined for a time in the castle of Rouen, but what eventually became of him, no one ever knew. It 1204 A.D. was popularly believed that John rowed up the Seine to the castle one dark night, accompanied by a couple of hired assassins, and having taken Arthur into the boat, they stabbed him, and threw his body, loaded with stones, into the river. Whether this is true or not, we cannot say; but no mortal eye ever beheld the poor boy afterwards.

John's guilt, however, was fully believed at the French court. Philip summoned him to answer before his peers of France the charge of murdering a vassal of the French crown, and a near relation of the king. To this summons he paid no attention. He was adjudged, therefore, guilty of the crime, and pronounced to have forfeited all his fiefs in France. Almost immediately every one of the English possessions in France, excepting Guienne and a part of Poitou, fell into the hands of the French king.

Quarrel with the Pope. War with France.

On the death of Herbert, Archbishop of Canterbury, the monks of the cathedral secretly elected their Superior to be his successor, and sent him off to Rome to obtain the Pope's confirmation. John ordered the monks to elect his friend John de Gray, Bishop of Norwich, to the vacant see, and he forthwith was sent to Rome. But the bishops of the province of Canterbury petitioned the Pope against both elections, on the ground that they had not been consulted. The Pope at that time was Innocent III., a man of great ability, jealous of his authority, and ambitious of power. He set aside the two elections, and recommended to the monks of Canterbury a learned Englishman, named **Stephen Langton**, who was then at Rome. The monks agreed to accept the Pope's choice, and a letter was sent by Innocent to the king, announcing Langton as the new archbishop.

The news lashed John into fury, and he swore that

Langton should never enter his dominions. He immediately sent armed men to Canterbury, who entered the monastery with drawn swords and forced the monks to depart forthwith. Innocent, on the other hand, threatened to place the country under an interdict, unless the king at once submitted. The threat was of no avail, and **1208** the interdict was published, by which for six **A.D.** years the country was deprived of the privileges and comfort of religion. The churches were closed; the bells were silent in the steeple; churchyards were closed for burial, and the dead were thrown into unconsecrated ground without a prayer or any sacred rite. Only to infants and dying persons were the Sacraments allowed to be administered. John cared nothing about the interdict; he plundered the clergy who obeyed it, and ordered the sheriffs to drive them out of the kingdom.

It is remarkable that while the country was under an interdict John had his greatest successes in Scotland, Ireland, and Wales. In 1209 A.D. he made William King of Scotland do homage, and pay him a fine of 15,000 marks. In 1210 A.D., he landed in Ireland, and received the homage of its chiefs. He divided the English province into counties, and established the laws of England among those who had settled there. The following year he invaded Wales, and received the submission of Llewellyn and twenty-eight noble youths as hostages.

As John continued indifferent to the interdict, the Pope pronounced sentence of excommunication against him, by which his subjects were absolved from their **1212** allegiance, and the throne declared vacant. The **A.D.** Pontiff then empowered Philip of France to take the crown of England, and called upon all Christian princes to assist the enterprise. Though John had an army of 60,000 men under his command, he felt little confidence in their fidelity, and he became greatly alarmed at the preparations of the French king. The fleet of the Cinque Ports, indeed, was not idle. Dieppe and a few other places on the northern coast of France were burnt; but this could not prevent an invasion. Thoroughly alarmed,

John sent a messenger to Rome, with offers of submission, and immediately **Pandulf** was sent as papal legate to England, to arrange matters with the king. Near Dover, the latter took off his crown, laid it at Pandulf's feet, and signed a document by which he granted to the Pope the kingdom of England and Ireland, and, in token of vassalage, promised to pay an annual sum of 1,000 marks to the Holy See. **1213** A.D.

On these conditions the excommunication and interdict were withdrawn, and Philip was ordered to give up the idea of invading England. This king, however, having spent much money in preparing to carry out the Pope's wishes, expressed his determination to go on with the enterprise, but on the refusal of his chief ally, the Earl of Flanders, to give any further assistance, he turned his arms against his territory, and ravaged it as far as the walls of Ghent. John sent out a fleet to assist the earl, which gained an important victory over the French at **Damme**, and thus preserved the independence of Flanders. Encouraged by this success, the English king invaded France on the western side, while part of his forces joined his allies, the Earl of Flanders and Otho Emperor of Germany, on the north. Their defeat at **Bouvines**, between Lisle and Tournay, compelled John to make a truce of five years, and he returned to England much disappointed. **1213** A.D. **1214** A.D.

Magna Charta.

John's rule had from the first been most oppressive. He broke the laws whenever it pleased him; he trespassed upon the rights of the nobility and disgraced many of their homes. The common people were also treated with the greatest harshness, and the Jews especially suffered from his exactions. One of the latter people, living in Bristol, having refused to pay a demand of 10,000 marks, John threw him into prison, and ordered one of his teeth to be

drawn daily until he should give up the money. The Jew lost seven teeth before he yielded.

Discontent with the king's bad conduct and government became so general that the barons determined to check his tyranny. At a great meeting of bishops and barons, Stephen Langton, the Archbishop of Canterbury, made known the charter of liberties of Henry I. The assembly at once resolved to make it the basis of a demand for the redress of grievances, and at subsequent meetings at Bury St. Edmund's, London, and Stamford, they drew up a charter which they were determined the king should sign. John at first hesitated, for the purpose of gaining time, and at length refused to agree to the demands, exclaiming, 'They may as well ask for my crown!' But the barons were determined, and having made Robert FitzWalter their leader, with the title of 'Marshal of the Army of God and of Holy Church,' they took possession of London, and made war against the king, in spite of the Pope's commands to the contrary. The loss of London brought John to his senses, and, seeing the hopelessness of opposition, he met the barons at **Runnymede**, between Windsor and Staines, and there fixed his seal to the **Magna Charta**, a document ever memorable and famous as the charter of English liberties.

June 15, **1215** A.D.

Magna Charta was written in Latin, and is still preserved in the British Museum. It has been ratified thirty-nine times by different monarchs of England; the last one who did so was Henry VI. Its principal clauses relate:—1. To the Church. 2. To the barons. 3. To traders. 4. To freemen generally. The Church was to possess all her privileges; the barons were protected from all unjust taxation; London and other towns retained their privileges of trade; and for freemen it was provided 'that no freeman should be imprisoned, or lose his freehold, or free customs, or be outlawed, or otherwise punished, but by the judgment of his peers or by the law of the land; that justice should not be sold, or denied, or delayed; that all men might travel out of the kingdom and return when they pleased.'

War with the Barons. Death and Character.

After the meeting at Runnymede, John withdrew to the Isle of Wight, vowing revenge against his rebellious barons. Messengers were at once sent abroad to gather an army of mercenaries, and ambassadors were despatched to the Pope to solicit his condemnation of the Charter. The Pope pronounced the document to be null and void, inasmuch as the realm belonged to him. Bands of needy adventurers flocked over from the Continent, and enabled John to take the field against his own subjects. The lands of the barons were ravaged far and wide; castles, towns, and villages were given to the flames, and everywhere the revenge of the cruel king was most complete. The barons, in despair, offered the crown to Louis, the eldest son of the King of France, and John's nephew by marriage. This prince set sail from Calais with 680 ships, landed in the Isle of Thanet, and soon took possession of all the southern and eastern counties. Jealousy, however, at the favours bestowed upon the new-comers, was fast weakening the army of Louis, and many English barons withdrew their support. In the meantime John was marching from the north to meet his rival, but as he was crossing the Wash the tide came up and carried away all his baggage, stores, and treasures. Disappointment and grief brought on a fever, of which he died at Newark Castle. Some writers say that a surfeit of peaches and new ale was the cause of his sickness; others, that he died of poison.

Oct. 19, **1216** A.D.

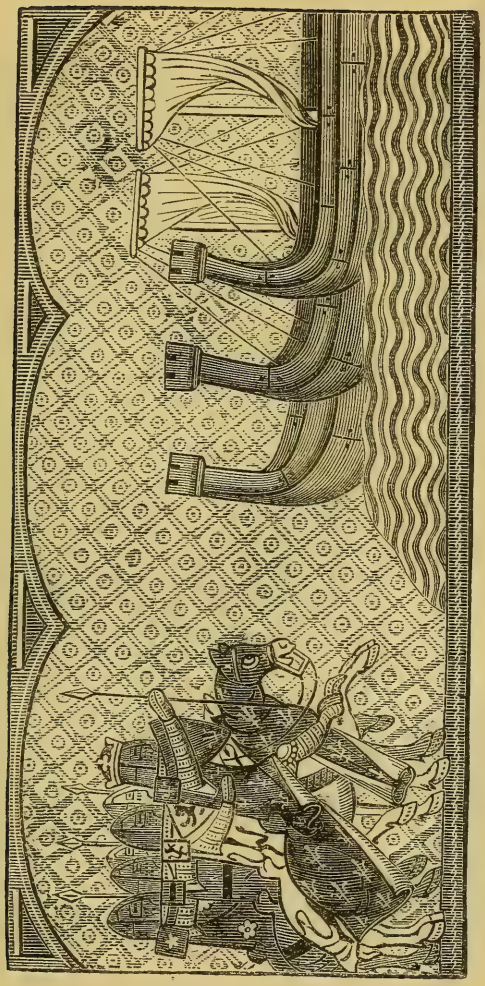
John's death was a happy release for his country. His character was a mixture of everything bad. Nothing good can be said of him. He was mean, treacherous, debauched, tyrannical, cruel, and cowardly. Some of his actions can only be accounted for on the supposition that he was for the time mad.

By his last wife Isabella he had two sons and three daughters—Henry, who became king; Richard; Joan, who married Alexander II. of Scotland; Eleanor, who married,

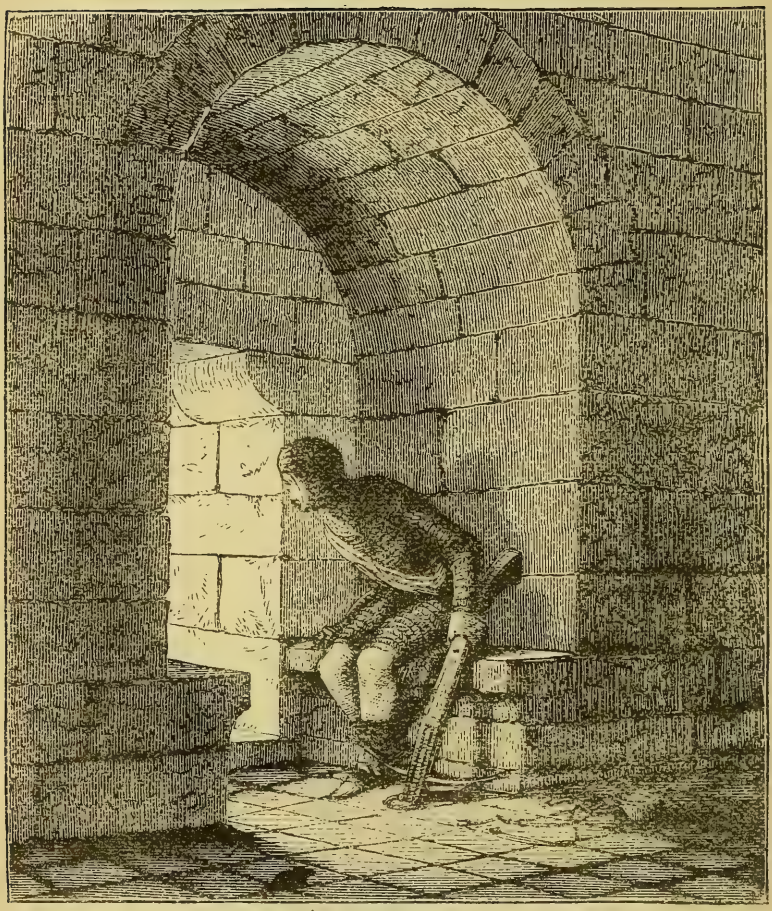
first, William Earl of Pembroke, and afterwards Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester; and Isabel, who married Frederick II., Emperor of Germany.

Miscellaneous Facts.

Chimneys came into occasional use in this reign. The first stone bridge at London was completed, 1209 A.D.



Knights and Shipping of the 13th Century. (From Royal MSS. Brit. Mus.)



Crossbowman and Military Architecture of the 14th Century.

HENRY III. (Winchester).

Born 1207 A.D. Began to Reign 1216 A.D. Died 1272 A.D.

Regency of Pembroke.
Hubert de Burgh.
Disputes with France, Scotland, and Wales.
War with the Barons.
First House of Commons.
Battle of Evesham.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Regency of Pembroke and Hubert de Burgh.

THE royal family was at Gloucester when John died. His eldest son, Henry, a boy nine years old, was immediately crowned in that city, and the Earl of Pembroke was made Protector of the kingdom. The first step of the regent was undertaken to win over to the young king's side the English barons who supported Louis. For this purpose he assembled a great council at Bristol, and confirmed the Great Charter.

Louis held possession of London and the southern counties, and was by no means willing to give up his chance of the crown, but his partiality to his own countrymen, the death of John, and the wise conduct of the Earl of Pembroke, caused many of his English supporters to rally round young Henry. Pembroke attacked the forces of the French prince at Lincoln, and completely routed them. This battle is known as the **Fair of Lincoln**, on account of the great spoil that fell to the victors. Louis retreated to London, and was there shut in by the English forces, while the

1217 A.D.

ships of the Cinque Ports, under Hubert de Burgh, defeated a French fleet, off Dover, carrying reinforcements to the capital. The victory was due to a trick of De Burgh, who, having the wind in his favour; threw quicklime into the air, which, wafted into the eyes of the French, made them entirely helpless. Louis, after this defeat, came to terms with the regent, and returned to France. (Sept. 1217 A.D.)

In the third year of his regency, Earl Pembroke died. The custody of the young king was then given into the hands of Peter de Roches, the Poitevin Bishop of Winchester, and Hubert de Burgh was appointed Protector of the kingdom. Between these two men quarrels were frequent, and, in consequence, many difficulties arose in the government of the country. When the king reached the age of seventeen years, the guardianship of De Roches ceased, and De Burgh became Henry's friend and chief adviser. The bishop, vexed at his loss of influence and power, went on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. De Burgh held the office of protector for eight years, during which time he conducted the government with vigour and decision. Henry was declared of age in 1227 A.D., and then Hubert devoted himself to his office of justiciary. Three years afterwards, the king made an unsuccessful expedition against France, and threw the blame upon his friend De Burgh. Just then Peter de Roches returned to England, and was received with open arms by Henry. Ruin stared the justiciary in the face. Unpopular for his vigorous protectorate, blamed for the failure of the expedition to France, and hated by De Roches, he saw that disgrace awaited him. He was required to give an account of the moneys received during his time of office; and was accused of serious offences against his sovereign. Believing that his death was intended, he sought refuge, first in the sanctuary of Merton, and afterwards in the parish church of Brentwood, whence he was forcibly taken by the king's order. Transferred from prison to prison, he at length escaped to Wales; but in 1234 A.D. he received

Henry's pardon, and spent the remainder of his life in retirement.

Disputes with France, Wales, and Scotland.

When Louis made peace with Earl Pembroke in London, he promised to use his influence with his father for the restoration of the French provinces which John had lost. No restoration, however, took place. But when Louis became king of France, in 1223, he republished the sentence which his father had pronounced against John, and took possession of a part of the provinces of Poitou and Guienne, which still belonged to the English crown. In consequence of this conduct, Henry received a grant of money from a great council of the barons, on condition of again confirming Magna Charta, and **1225** an expedition was sent out to Guienne. The A.D. attempt to recover the whole province failed. In 1230, Henry took an army to St. Malo, but instead of vigorously carrying on the war, he spent the time in useless display, and was at last glad to make a truce. This was the war for which Hubert de Burgh was blamed.

Twelve years afterwards, the war with France was renewed, through the persuasion of Henry's mother, who had married her old lover, the Count de la Marche. The latter, having quarrelled with the French king, promised to help Henry to recover Poitou. At the head of an English force, the king landed near the mouth of the Garonne, but Louis met him with greater numbers at **Taillebourg**, and put him to flight. Another defeat soon **1242** after at **Saintonge** forced Henry to agree to a A.D. truce. Peace was at last made in 1259, by which England gave up all claim to Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Poitou, and received, in return, Limousin, Perigord, and Querci.

With Wales there were quarrels throughout the reign. The Welsh indulged in their usual attacks upon the border

counties, and the English in retaliation sent forces to ravage the principality. The mountain fastnesses defied all idea of conquest, but the march country was one wild scene of desolation.

With Scotland there were several disputes about the three northern English counties and the homage of the Scottish king, but throughout this long reign no war arose between the two countries. Their ties of friendship were strengthened by a double marriage. Alexander II. married Joan, Henry's sister, and Alexander III. married Margaret, Henry's daughter.

War with the Barons. First House of Commons.

Henry, though he had several times confirmed Magna Charta, regarded that document as an encroachment upon the rights of a king. He broke its provisions on several occasions, and looked upon the English barons with suspicion, as men desirous of lessening the kingly power. Under the influence of this feeling, he bestowed his favours upon the numerous foreigners who flocked to England from Poitou on the return of Peter de Roches to power. His marriage with Eleanor of Provence, in 1236, brought another shoal of foreigners into the country from his wife's native land, and these, like the Poitevins, were treated with marked favour. They became his confidants and advisers; they enjoyed the highest honours at the court; they married the richest heiresses in the kingdom, and ladies were even brought from Provence to marry the rich wards of the king. Under their advice, the Great Charter was often broken. It is reported that they used to say, when the law was appealed to in opposition to their wrongdoing, 'What do the English laws signify to us? We mind them not.'

Henry further increased the discontent of the nation by accepting the crown of Sicily for his second son, Edmund, as he thereby incurred a very heavy debt, which he expected

Knights Fighting. (From Royal MSS. Brit. Mus.)

To face page 107.

the barons to pay, 1254. The English nobles, remembering the example of their fathers in the reign of John, were determined to put an end to the king's bad government and foreign favouritism, and, under the leadership of Simon de Montfort, who had married Henry's sister Eleanor, they attended a council at Westminster in full armour, and demanded the redress of national grievances. In another council, held soon after at Oxford, which was called the **Mad Parliament,** on account of the confusion that followed, twenty-four barons were appointed to enquire into the grievances of the nation, and suggest changes necessary for the good of the country. On the recommendation of this committee, the following regulations, known as **The Provisions of Oxford** were approved:—1. That four knights should be chosen by the freeholders of each county to lay before Parliament all their grievances. 2. That sheriffs of counties should be chosen annually by the freeholders. 3. That Parliament should meet three times a year. 4. That all public accounts should be given annually. 5. That no heirs should be committed to the wardship of foreigners, and that no castles should be entrusted to their custody.

1258 A.D.

The barons, however, not content with these important changes, selected twelve of their number to act as a standing Council, in order to ensure good government; but these, instead of consulting the interests of the country, usurped the royal power, and gave their chief care to the aggrandisement of their own families. Quarrels in consequence arose between them and the king, and civil war again threatened to arise. Louis IX. of France, called St. Louis, was asked to decide the causes of difference. As his award was in favour of Henry, the barons refused to abide by it, and both sides then prepared for war. A pitched battle was fought at **Lewes,** in Sussex, in which the barons were victorious, and the king and his brother Richard were taken prisoners. A truce, called the **Mise of Lewes,** from an old French word of that meaning, was then made, by which it

May 14, **1264** A.D.

was agreed that the matters in dispute should be settled by arbitration; that all prisoners should be set at liberty; and that Prince Edward, the king's eldest son, and his cousin, should be hostages for the king's peaceable conduct. Contrary to the terms of the Mise, Henry was kept a prisoner, and Simon de Montfort, as leader of the barons, assumed the royal power, and was, in all but name, a king.

On the 20th of January in the following year, De Montfort summoned a Parliament at London, in the king's name,

1265 A.D. which will be ever famous in our history as the beginning of the **House of Commons.** In addition to the great barons and prelates, *he summoned two knights from each shire, and two deputies from each city and borough.* They all sat in the same Chamber, and continued to do so until the reign of Edward III., when the representatives of the people assembled separately, and thus took the name of the **House of Commons,** while the barons formed the **House of Lords.**

Though De Montfort won favour from the common people by summoning their representatives to Parliament, many of the barons were offended at the change. His ambition and arrogance, besides, drove many from his side, and jealousy arose amongst those that remained. In the meanwhile, the king's party continually increased in numbers; and when Prince Edward escaped from his guards, he found a strong force of royalists ready to maintain his cause.

Aug. 4, **1265** A.D. Placing himself at their head, he met the army of the Earl of Leicester at **Evesham,** in Worcestershire. The barons placed the king in the front ranks, in order that he might be slain by his own friends, but as the latter were rushing on to the attack, the king cried out, 'I am Henry of Winchester, your king!' and thus saved his life. The rebel barons were put to flight; De Montfort and his eldest son were slain, and the civil war was brought to an end.

Death and Character of the King.

After the battle of Evesham, the crown sat firmly on Henry's head. Prince Edward, taking advantage of the peaceable state of the kingdom, set out on a crusade to the Holy Land, in company with his wife Eleanor. There he was stabbed with a poisoned dagger, and owed his life to the affection of his wife, who sucked the poison from the wound. During his absence, his father died at Bury St. Edmund's, in the fifty-seventh year of a reign which, excepting that of George III., is the longest in our history.

Nov. 16, **1272** A.D.

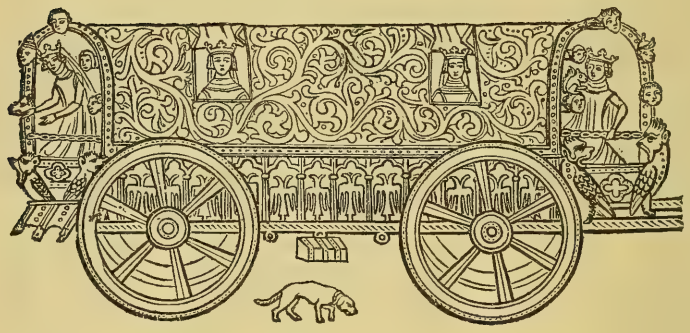
Henry was a man of middle size. One of his eyebrows fell over the eyelid so as to conceal part of the eye. In character he was gentle and religious, but his want of energy and talent unfitted him to rule in those turbulent times.

His children were: — Edward, who became king; Edmund Earl of Lancaster; Margaret, married Alexander III. of Scotland; and Beatrice, married John Duke of Brittany.

Miscellaneous Facts.

Many improvements in domestic life were made in this reign. License was given to the people of Newcastle to dig **coal**, which is the first mention of this mineral in England. The linen manufacture was introduced by the Flemings; candles were used instead of wooden torches; tiles took the place of thatch in roofing houses; and leaden water-pipes came into use. The first gold coin was struck in this reign. **Roger Bacon**, a monk, made many useful discoveries in science. Magnifying-glasses, magic-lanterns, the air-pump, and gunpowder were invented by him. Another important mark of improvement was the abolition of trial by ordeal. The Mendicants, or Begging Friars, found their way to England in 1221, and settled first at Oxford. They professed poverty and maintained themselves by

begging from door to door—hence their name. They were preachers independent of episcopal control. There were many orders of these mendicants: the **Dominicans**, who came first, called also *Blackfriars*, from the colour of their dress; the **Franciscans**, called *Greyfriars*, from the colour of their habit; the **Carmelites**, or *Whitefriars*; and the **Augustines**.



Royal Carriage; illustrative of the travelling of the period.

EDWARD I. (Longshanks).

Born 1239 A.D. Began to Reign 1272 A.D. Died 1307 A.D.

Accession.
Conquest of Wales.
Affairs of Scotland.
War with France.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Accession. Conquest of Wales.

EDWARD I., the eldest son of Henry III., was in the Holy Land at the time of his father's death, but the Council at once announced his accession to the throne, and the chief nobility swore allegiance to him in his absence. In Sicily, on his way back, he received the news from home, but affairs in France prevented his landing in England till 1274, in which year he was crowned, with his queen, at Westminster, in the presence of Alexander III. of Scotland and the Parliament.

Edward first gave his attention to the conquest of Wales. The Welsh, protected by their mountains and forests, had hitherto defied every attempt of the kings of England to effect their conquest. The history of the country from the tenth century is one long roll of strife and bloodshed. When not engaged in war with the Anglo-Normans, quarrels were frequent among themselves, and the work of blood went on at home. At this time Llewellyn reigned in Wales. His refusal to do homage, on the summons of Edward, brought an English army against him. Edward crossed the Dee, took the castles of Flint and Rhuddlan, and shut up Llewellyn among the Snowdon mountains. The latter then sent in his submission, and acknowledged himself as a vassal of the English king. (1277 A.D.) But the Welsh, after so long maintaining their independence, would not willingly submit to English rule. In 1282 they flew to arms, made a sudden attack upon the fortresses of Flint

and Rhuddlan, and ravaged the marches far and wide. Edward called together all his vassals, and advanced into Wales with a large army, while his fleet was sent round to Anglesea. Llewellyn, in the meantime, while engaged in disputing the passage of an English force across the Wye in Radnorshire, was suddenly attacked and slain, **1282** and 2,000 of his men put to the sword. His A.D. head was cut off and sent to the king, who ordered it to be crowned with willow and placed on the Tower of London. Llewellyn's brother David continued the struggle for some months, but, pursued from mountain to mountain, he at last fell into the hands of his enemies. Edward sent him in chains to Shrewsbury, where he was tried for high treason and sentenced to be hanged, drawn, and quartered. The conquest of Wales was now complete. English laws, sheriffs, and courts of justice were established in the principality; the district was divided into counties; and strong castles were built to ensure the submission of the people. To please the Welsh, Edward's infant son, who had been born at Caernarvon, was made Prince of Wales—a title which has ever since been given to the eldest son of the English sovereigns.

Affairs of Scotland.

Alexander III., King of Scotland, who had married Edward's sister, died in 1286 A.D., without leaving any issue, except Margaret, the wife of Eric King of Norway. Through Alexander's care, the States of Scotland agreed to receive as their queen, Margaret, the daughter of Eric, then a child of three years old. This princess, known in history as **The Maid of Norway**, died at the Orkneys on her passage to Scotland, and thus left the succession to the throne a matter of dispute and confusion. Out of thirteen candidates for the crown, John Baliol and Robert Bruce were considered to have the best claim. They were both descended from David Earl of Huntingdon, the brother of William the Lion. Baliol was the *grandson* of Margaret, the *eldest* daughter of David, and Bruce was the *son* of

Isabel, the *second* daughter. The Parliament of Scotland, in fear of civil war, referred the dispute to Edward. The English king marched to the north with a large army, and summoned the Scottish Parliament and the several claimants for the throne to appear before him at the castle of Norham. Having thus got the heads of the Scottish nation in his power, he demanded of them the acknowledgment of his right to settle the dispute as supreme lord of Scotland, and not as a chosen arbitrator. He based this claim on the fact that William the Lion had sworn vassalage to Henry II., and that Richard I. had no right to sell it. The Scots, thus taken by surprise, were unable to make any resistance. Edward decided in favour of Baliol, **1292** who, on doing homage, was placed in possession A.D. of the throne.

Baliol soon felt the irksomeness of his condition as a vassal of the English king. His subjects, when they thought themselves aggrieved, carried their complaints to Edward, and he was summoned repeatedly to appear before the bar of the English Parliament. These indignities were evidently intended to rouse Baliol to rebellion, in order that Edward might have an opportunity of taking possession of Scotland. The quarrel between England and France led Baliol, in 1296 A.D., to throw off his yoke of vassalage. Edward at once marched northwards, took Berwick by storm, defeated the Scots near **Dun-** **1296** **bar**, and advanced to Elgin without further oppo- A.D. sition. Baliol was dethroned, and, after two years' confinement in the Tower of London, was allowed to retire to Normandy. The government of Scotland was left in the hands of the Earl of Surrey. The regalia and the great stone at Scone Castle, upon which the Scottish kings had been crowned from the earliest times, were brought to London. This stone was regarded with great veneration by the Scots, and popular legend said it was the one upon which Jacob laid his head at Bethel. It is now to be seen in the chair in which the kings of England are still crowned in Westminster Abbey.

The Scots, however, were not disposed to submit to

English rule. From 1297 A.D. to 1304 A.D., a struggle, known as the 'Scottish War of Independence,' was carried on under Sir **William Wallace**. Earl Surrey was defeated with great slaughter near **Stirling**, and, after strengthening the English garrisons, he was forced to retire across the borders. Edward, who was then in Flanders, hurried home, and, collecting all his forces, overthrew the Scots at **Falkirk**, and inflicted upon them a loss of 30,000 men. Wallace withdrew to the woods, and, by sudden attacks, continued to harass the English forces. Treachery at last placed him in the power of Edward, who ordered him to be taken in chains to London, and there executed as a traitor. (1305 A.D.)

1297 A.D.

After the capture of Wallace the conquest of Scotland was thought complete, but in 1306 A.D. the Scottish nobility called upon Robert Bruce, the grandson of Baliol's rival, to head them in another attempt at independence. The news of the crowning of this young nobleman roused the spirit of Edward, and he marched to the north, burning with revenge, and bent upon punishing the whole nation. Illness, however, stopped his march, and his death at Burgh-on-Sands, near Carlisle, put an end to his vows of vengeance.

July 7, **1307** A.D.

War with France.

In the year following the appointment of Baliol to the throne of Scotland, a quarrel between some English and Norman sailors near Bayonne, in Normandy, led to a war with France. In this quarrel a Norman sailor was accidentally killed. His countrymen, in revenge, seized some of the crew of an English ship, and hung them at the mast-head with several dogs. The sailors of the Cinque Ports fitted out a fleet of eighty ships, and sent a challenge to the French to fight out their quarrel in the open sea. Two hundred sail answered the challenge, but not one returned to tell the tale of their defeat. (1293 A.D.) This loss so angered Philip of France that he summoned Edward, as Duke of Aquitaine, to appear before him.

Edmund, the king's brother, was sent over to settle the matter, and he foolishly surrendered to Philip the duchy of Guienne, the only English possession in France, on the understanding that it would be restored at the end of forty days. But when the time was expired, Philip refused to restore the duchy and declared it forfeited, because the Duke of Aquitaine had not appeared in answer to his summons. Edward immediately prepared for war. To obtain funds for this purpose, he demanded from the clergy and laity more money than he had a right to claim, and he levied heavy duties upon wool without the consent of Parliament. An English army was sent into Guienne, and Edward himself was preparing to follow, when he heard that Baliol had made a secret treaty with the King of France, and had renounced his allegiance. After the settlement of Scottish affairs, Edward embarked with an army for Flanders, while another force was sent into Guienne. (1297 A.D.) On this occasion some of the leading English barons refused to accompany him, because he had exacted money contrary to the law, and they compelled him to confirm the Great Charter, and add to it a new clause to secure the nation for the future from taxation without the consent of Parliament.

Force of arms failed to recover Guienne, and the news of the success of Wallace in Scotland made Edward glad to bring the war to an end. Through the mediation of Pope Boniface, peace was concluded with France in 1298 A.D. The peace was strengthened by a double marriage. Edward, then a widower, married Margaret, Philip's sister, and it was arranged that the Prince of Wales should marry Isabella, the daughter of that king. Guienne was restored to the English in 1303 A.D.

Death and Character of the King.

Edward, as we have seen, died at Burgh-on-Sands, in the sixty-ninth year of his age and the thirty-fifth of his reign, charging his eldest son to carry his body before the army into Scotland, and not to bury it until the conquest of that country was complete.

July 7, **1307** A.D.

In appearance, Edward was tall and commanding, and from the great length of his legs he had the name of *Long Shanks*. His character was open, manly, and royal. Prudence, foresight, vigilance, energy, and industry, made him a wise statesman and a successful soldier; but his severity sometimes reached the point of cruelty. His reign is distinguished for the improvement of our laws, and, on this account, he has been called the *English Justinian*. His general character has also won for him the title of the *Greatest of the Plantagenets*.

He was twice married: (1) to Eleanor of Castile, and (2) to Margaret of France. He left three sons and five daughters.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1279 A.D., an important law, called the **Statute of Mortmain**, was passed, by which lands were forbidden to be made over to religious bodies without the king's permission. The statute was so called because land given to a corporation yielded no fines or profits to the king, and was considered to be *in a dead holding* (*in mortua manu*).

In this reign the **Convocation**, or clerical parliament, consisting of an Upper and Lower House, took its rise.

The Jews, under Edward, suffered great cruelty and oppression. In 1290 A.D., they were banished from the kingdom; and did not return till the time of the Commonwealth. Their place as money-lenders was supplied by some Italian merchants, called Lombards, who settled in that part of London now named Lombard Street, and whose arms were the three balls now seen over pawnbrokers' shops.

Windmills, spectacles, and looking-glasses, were introduced, and paper brought from the East. Striking clocks were invented by an English abbot, but there were only two of them in the kingdom during this reign—one at Westminster, and the other at Canterbury. A trade in coal arose between London and Newcastle, but the use of the mineral was forbidden in the following year, on account of the smoke nuisance.

EDWARD II. (Caernarvon).

Born 1284 A.D. Began to Reign 1307 A.D. Died 1327 A.D.

Influence of Gaveston.
First Revolt of the Barons.
War with Scotland.
The Spencers.
Second Revolt of the Barons.
Deposition, Murder, and Character of Edward.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Influence of Gaveston. Revolt of the Barons.

EDWARD II., named Caernarvon, from the place of his birth, was twenty-three years old at his father's death. The Scottish war was abandoned, and the old king's body buried at Westminster, contrary to his dying wishes. The young king soon showed his unfitness to occupy the throne. Unworthy favourites influenced his conduct, and eventually worked his ruin. The first of these was **Piers Gaveston**, a Gascon knight, who had been his companion in boyhood. The late king had banished him, on account of the worthlessness of his character, but the first thing young Edward did, after his accession, was to send for his old friend. The highest honours were at once conferred upon him. He was made Earl of Cornwall, and married the king's niece. When Edward went to France to marry Isabella, his favourite was appointed regent of the kingdom. The barons, already angered by the favours and honours given to this young Frenchman, were insulted by receiving nicknames. Roused by his insolence and haughtiness, they insisted upon his banishment, and he was sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant. After a while the weak king recalled him, but, untaught by the past, his conduct became more provoking than ever. The Parliament, in order to check the favourite's power and ensure better government, appointed a council of twenty-one peers to rule the royal household, and these were called **Ordainers.**

Their first step was to banish Gaveston, with the warning that if he returned he should be treated as a public enemy. After a few months the king again recalled him; but the barons immediately took up arms, and, under the leadership of Thomas Earl of Lancaster, seized Gaveston at Scarborough Castle, took him to Warwick, and beheaded him on Blacklow Hill. (1312 A.D.) Edward was very angry at his favourite's death, but he was powerless to punish his nobles.

War with Scotland.

When Edward I. died, Bruce was at the head of the Scottish nation; and while the new king was wasting his time with worthless favourites, and quarrelling with his barons, Bruce made himself master of Linlithgow, Roxburgh, Edinburgh, and Perth; and Stirling was the only fortress in possession of the English. To save this place, already closely besieged, Edward marched with an army of 100,000 men into Scotland. Bruce, with a picked army of 30,000 men, had taken up a strong position at **Bannockburn**, about a mile from Stirling, which he further strengthened by digging pits, and covering them with sods. As the English approached, the Scotch all knelt down, in reverence to a crucifix carried through their ranks. 'See,' cried Edward, 'they are kneeling! they ask mercy.' 'They do, my liege,' answered one of his knights, 'but it is from God, and not from us. Trust me, yon men will win the day, or die upon the field.' 'Be it so, then,' replied the king, and ordered the charge to be sounded. The English, rushing furiously to the attack, were thrown into confusion by the pits and the steady valour of the Scotch. Bruce, well protected by the nature of the ground, bided his time; and when he saw signs of wavering in the English ranks, he ordered his army to advance in one line. Just at that critical time some Highlanders made their appearance on a neighbouring hill, and the English, thinking them a fresh army, fled in confusion, with a loss of 30,000 men. This battle, so disastrous to the English, placed the northern counties for

June 24, **1314** A.D.

a time at the mercy of the conquerors, and secured the independence of Scotland.

The success of the Scots encouraged the Irish to strike a blow for independence. Edward, brother of the Scotch king, crossed over to Ireland, and was crowned king of Ulster at Carrickfergus. (1315 A.D.) For two years, assisted by his brother Robert, he ruled in Ulster, but his death, in the battle of Fagher, near Dundalk, restored English supremacy. 1318 A.D.

The Spencers. Second Revolt of the Barons.

After the battle of Bannockburn, the party of the Earl of Lancaster held the chief power in England, while Edward devoted himself to another favourite in the person of Hugh de Spencer, a young man of English birth, high rank, and noble family. This favourite became as hateful to the barons as Gaveston, and he and his father were accused in Parliament of usurping the royal authority, and were banished. Edward, roused at this insult, took up arms to resist the encroachments of the Lancastrian party, recalled the Spencers after three months' exile, defeated the confederate barons at Boroughbridge, captured the Earl of Lancaster, and beheaded him in Pontefract Castle. (1322 A.D.)

This success made Edward supreme in the government, and the power of the Spencers became greater than ever. But danger threatened the king from an unforeseen quarter. Charles the Fair of France complained about the government of Guienne, and Isabella was sent to Paris to arrange matters with her brother. She persuaded her husband to resign the duchy of Guienne to their eldest son, then a boy of thirteen years old, and to send him over to France to do homage. But this was only part of a plot for her husband's overthrow. On the arrival of the queen at Paris, she found there several barons of the Lancastrian party, and, amongst the number, Roger Mortimer, a young noble, powerful in the Welsh marches. Common hatred of the Spencers drew the queen and these exiled nobles together,

and Mortimer succeeded in gaining such a place in the queen's affections that she willingly joined a conspiracy for her husband's ruin.

Collecting a force of 2,000 men, she landed on the coast of Suffolk, and was immediately joined by the discontented nobility. Edward, finding himself deserted, withdrew to Wales, but the elder Spencer was captured in Bristol, and, though ninety years old, was hanged, and his body thrown to the dogs. His son, too, was captured, and after a mock trial at Hereford he was executed upon a gallows fifty feet high.

1326 A.D.

Deposition, Murder, Character of the King.

Edward now seemed utterly forsaken. Failing to rouse the Welsh in his favour, he set sail for Ireland, but contrary winds drove him back to Wales. There he was soon discovered by his enemies, and sent as a prisoner to Kenilworth Castle. The queen then summoned a Parliament in her husband's name, which voted the deposition of the king, as one unfit to govern. (January 7, 1327 A.D.) A deputation, sent to Kenilworth, forced from him a deed of resignation in favour of his son. The unhappy monarch was taken from castle to castle—to Corfe, Bristol, and Berkeley, and subjected to the greatest indignities. As bad treatment failed to put him out of the way, the queen and Mortimer determined upon his murder. One night the inmates of Berkeley Castle were roused from sleep by fearful shrieks in the king's apartment, and in the morning his dead body was shown without any marks of violence upon it. Report said that red-hot iron had been passed into his body through a horn. No one enquired into the matter, and the body was buried at Gloucester. Thus, nine months after his deposition, miserably perished Edward II., in the forty-fourth year of his age, and twenty-first of his reign.

Sept. 21, 1327 A.D.

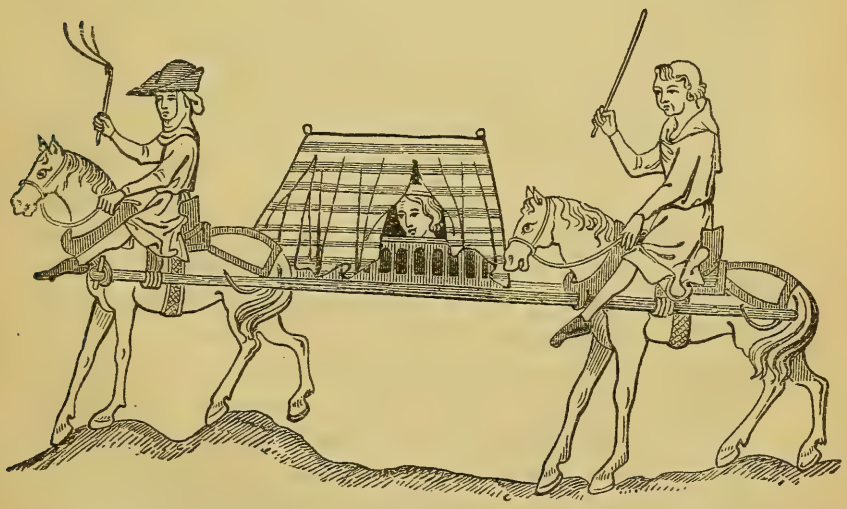
Edward resembled his father in person. In character, he was weak and passionate, and much of his time was

spent in idle amusements, while the government of the country was left in the hands of favourites.

His children were: Edward, who became king; John; and two daughters.

Miscellaneous Facts.

The Knights Templars, or order of soldier-monks, founded in the early Crusades, were suppressed (1312 A.D.), and their property was eventually placed in the hands of the Order of St. John, or Knights Hospitallers. The great house of the Templars in London was given to the law students in the following reign. Bills of exchange came into use; the first commercial treaty was made between England and Venice; paper was manufactured from rags, an innovation which the Chinese claim to have made, B.C. 170. Earthenware was introduced, and carrots and cabbages began to be used at table. Dublin University was founded in this reign.



Litter; illustrative of the travelling of the period. (From Royal MS. Brit. Mus.)

EDWARD III. (Windsor)

Born 1312 A.D. Began to Reign 1327 A.D. Died 1377 A.D.

The King's Minority.
Fall of Mortimer.
War with Scotland.
War with France.
Battle of Crecy.
Battle of Neville's Cross.
Siege of Calais.
Battle of Poitiers.
Death of the Black Prince.
Loss of the French Possessions.
Death and Character of Edward.
Miscellaneous Facts.

The King's Minority. Fall of Mortimer.

EDWARD III., as the eldest son of Edward II., was declared king on his father's deposition, but, since he was only fourteen years old, Parliament appointed a Council of Regency, and nominated the Earl of Lancaster guardian and protector of the young king's person. The real power, however, rested in the hands of Isabella and Mortimer.

The Scots, taking advantage of the disturbed state of England, invaded the northern counties. Edward accompanied an army to repress them, and narrowly escaped capture by a daring troop of Scotch horse. The Scots withdrew across the border in safety, and afterwards made their own terms of peace. They demanded the release of all their prisoners, the withdrawal of all claim of superiority on the part of England, and the restoration of the regalia. This disgraceful peace was made by the advice of Mortimer, and, in consequence, much ill-will was excited against him. Many of the nobility hated him for his arrogance and pride, and the king's uncle, the Earl of Kent, was executed for conspiring his overthrow. (1330 A.D.) The Earl of Lancaster, too, was thrown into prison on suspicion of abetting the plot, and many others were prosecuted. This success made Mortimer more powerful than ever; he took the title of Earl of March, and lived in royal style.

When Edward reached his eighteenth year he determined to shake off the authority of Mortimer, and take the government into his own hands. He told his plans to several nobles, and Nottingham Castle was fixed upon as the place to seize Mortimer's person. As the gates were always strongly guarded, an entrance into the castle was obtained through an underground passage. The obnoxious nobleman was seized and accused of usurping the royal authority, and forthwith hanged at Tyburn. (1330 A.D.) Isabella spent the rest of her life at her manor of Risings, in Norfolk, where the king paid her a formal visit once or twice a year.

War with Scotland.

Edward, having thus obtained the government of affairs, first gave his attention to Scotland. The great Bruce was dead, and his son David II., a boy in his seventh year, then filled the throne. In the treaty that was made with Scotland just before the death of Bruce, it was agreed that the English nobles should be restored to their estates in that country. This remained unfulfilled, and the discontented English encouraged Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, to make an attempt upon the Scottish crown. With a force of 3,000 men, Edward Baliol won his way to the throne in less than a month, but, foolishly dismissing his English supporters too soon, he found himself in another month driven across the border. Having promised to acknowledge the feudal superiority of the English king, he readily obtained Edward's help. While the latter was attacking Berwick—the key of Scotland—the Scots received a severe defeat at **Halidon Hill,** **1333** where their regent was slain. Baliol was then A.D. acknowledged king, and all the south-eastern counties of Scotland were added to England. This cession of territory increased the dislike of the Scots to Baliol, and, in spite of English help, he was again driven out of the country to make way for David II. (1341 A.D.) Fortunately for the Scots, the attention of the English king was drawn to France, and thus their country was delivered from further interference.

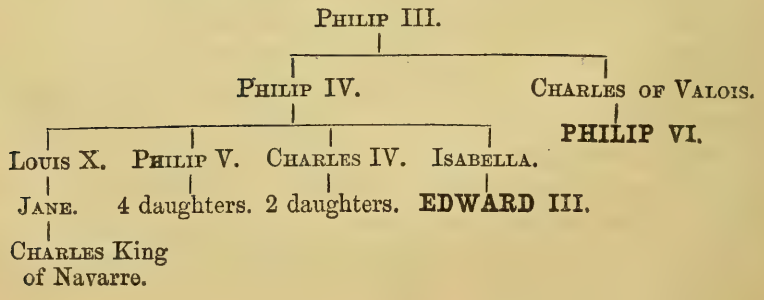
War with France. Crecy. Neville's Cross. Calais. Poitiers.

In 1328 A.D., Charles IV. of France died, without leaving any male issue. Edward claimed the throne of that country in right of his mother Isabella, the sister of the deceased king. But, according to the Salic law, which was in force in France, females were shut out from the throne, and therefore Isabella had no claim. Edward, however, said that his mother could transmit the right to him; but if this argument had any force, Charles of Navarre had a better claim, as may be seen from the genealogical table at the foot of the page.

The peers of France refused to acknowledge Edward's claim, and received Philip of Valois as their king. Edward submitted, and did homage to Philip for Guienne, which belonged to the English crown. But as Philip aided the cause of David II. of Scotland, Edward renewed **1337** his claim to the French crown, took the title of A.D. King of France, made alliances on the Continent, and prepared for war.

Hostilities were commenced from the side of Flanders in 1339 A.D., but with little success. In the fol- **1340** lowing year, the English attacked a large A.D. French fleet off **Sluys**. The French lost 230 ships out of 400, and 30,000 men, while the loss of the victors amounted to only 4,000. Edward then

---



commenced another campaign on land with a large army of mercenaries, but it proved fruitless, and ended in a truce for two years.

In the autumn of the year 1342 A.D., Edward renewed the war on the side of Brittany, which duchy was then in opposition to the King of France. The war, like the one before, was carried on without any advantage till 1346 A.D., when the English gained the first of the two great victories which has shed a lustre on this reign. In that year, Edward sailed from Southampton with an army of 30,000 men, and landed at Cape La Hogue, in Normandy. Meeting with no opposition, he advanced almost to the gates of Paris, laid waste Normandy, and then directed his march towards Flanders, pursued by the French. Crossing the river Somme, near Abbeville, in the face of a body of French cavalry, he took up a position near the village of **Crecy**, and there awaited the enemy. He divided his army of 30,000 men into three lines: the first he gave to the Prince of Wales, then only sixteen years old, and the third he commanded himself. The French came up with a large army of 120,000 men, and, though tired with a hurried march, pushed on to the attack about four o'clock in the afternoon. In their van were 15,000 Genoese crossbowmen, specially brought from Italy to contend with the English archers. Just before the battle a tremendous storm broke in thunder, and rain, and hail, on the field, and flocks of crows and ravens hovered with hoarse cries over the French ranks. When at last the sky had cleared, and the Genoese prepared their crossbows to shoot, the strings had been so wet by the rain that they could not draw them. The English archers, on the other hand, had kept their bows in cases during the storm, and so had their strings dry. As soon as the Genoese came within range, the archers let fly their arrows so thick and fast 'that it seemed as if it snowed.' Unable to stand such a storm, they turned and fled in the wildest confusion. The French king, enraged by the flight of his bowmen, shouted to his men-at-arms, 'Kill me those scoundrels!' His orders were obeyed, and the wretched Italians were cut down by their own friends. The

young Prince of Wales, leading on his men to the charge, was sorely pressed by the enemy, and sent to his father for

Archer, with Sheaf of Arrows.

help. The king, who was watching the battle from a neighbouring windmill, answered, 'Not so: let the boy win his spurs, and let the day be his.' This answer gave fresh courage to the English troops. They rushed again to the attack, drove the French in headlong flight, and chased them without mercy, till darkness put an end to the pursuit. Edward received his son with open arms on his return to camp, exclaiming, 'My brave son! persevere in your honourable course; you are my son; for valiantly have you acquitted yourself to-day, and worthy are you of a crown.' From this time the young prince became a terror to the French, by whom he was called the **Black**

Prince, from the colour of the armour he wore on that day.

Crossbowman, with Shield.

The battle of Crecy was most destructive to the French, who lost 11 princes, 1,200 knights, and more than 30,000 common soldiers. Among the slain was John, the blind King of Bohemia, who insisted upon entering the battle, and caused the reins of his bridle to be tied to the horses of two of his knights. The crest of this king, which consisted of three ostrich feathers, with its motto, *Ich Dien* (I serve), was assumed by the Prince of Wales.

Aug. 26, **1346** A.D.

Edward, after the battle, marched to Calais, which he besieged by land and sea. But in the meanwhile, David Bruce, taking advantage of Edward's absence, invaded England as an ally of France. He was met by Philippa, the queen, at **Neville's Cross**, near Durham, where his army was utterly defeated, and himself taken prisoner. He was liberated in 1357 for a ransom of 100,000 marks.

Oct. 12, **1346** A.D.

The **Siege of Calais** continued for eleven months. Though the townsmen defended their city with the greatest bravery, famine at last compelled them to open the gates. (1347 A.D.) Edward, very angry with the citizens for their stubborn resistance, ordered six of their chief men to bring him the keys of the town with feet bare and ropes round their necks. One of the richest men of the town, Eustace de St. Pierre, volunteered to undergo this humiliation, and five others quickly followed his example. Kneeling before the English king, they gave him the keys of Calais, begging for mercy. But Edward ground his teeth in passion, and called for the headsman to do his work. His queen then fell on her knees and begged for their lives. Her entreaties succeeded, and they were set at liberty. The native population was expelled, and a colony of English subjects took possession of the town, which became an important mart for the sale of Flemish and English goods. It continued under English rule for more than two centuries.

After the capture of Calais, a truce was made between France and England, which was further prolonged by a plague, called the **Black Death.** This dreadful pestilence first appeared in the north of Asia, and, spreading over the whole of Europe, destroyed about one-third of the population in every state through which it passed. In London 50,000 people are said to have perished.

In 1355 A.D., the truce ceased, and the French war was renewed as fiercely as ever. The state of France at that time was favourable to the success of the English arms. Philip of Valois was dead, and John, his son, now occupied the throne; but Charles of Navarre excited factions in the country, which almost made it powerless to resist invasion. Edward advanced from Calais, while the Black Prince ravaged the south of France, and both returned to their respective quarters laden with much spoil. In the following year, the Black Prince, encouraged by his former success, entered into the heart of France with a small force of 12,000 men, of whom scarcely one-third were English. On his return to Guienne, he was overtaken, near Poitiers,

by King John with an army of 60,000 men. Though greatly outnumbered, the hero of Crecy refused to surrender, and with great skill took up a position where he could only be approached through a narrow lane. A body of English archers lined the hedges, and when the French advanced up the narrow way, they were so hotly plied with arrows that their dead soon choked up the road, and the rest were driven back upon their own men. The victory of the English was complete; John was taken a prisoner, and brought to London. The **Battle of Poitiers** thus stands one of the most memorable on record.

Sept. 19, **1356** A.D.

King John was lodged in the palace of the Savoy, London, and was treated with the greatest attention and respect. He signed terms of peace with Edward, by which he promised to give back all the possessions in France which were held by Henry II., without exacting any homage for the same; but the French nobility refused to agree to such a disgraceful peace. Edward, in consequence, again invaded France, and ravaged the country up to the walls of Paris. This led to fresh negotiations, and, at length, a treaty of peace was made at Bretigni, hence called the **Treaty of Bretigni,** or **the Great Peace,** in which Edward renounced all claim to the French crown and the provinces of Normandy, Maine, Touraine, and Anjou, and received in return, without the claim of homage, the provinces of Poitou, Guienne, with districts in that quarter, and the town of Calais, and the promise of three million gold crowns (equal to 1,500,000*l.* of our money), as a ransom for the king. Three years afterwards, King John, failing to raise the ransom, returned to England, and was again placed in the palace of the Savoy, where he soon sickened and died.

May 8, **1360** A.D.

Death of the Black Prince. Loss of the French Provinces. Death of Edward, etc.

The English provinces in France were placed under the rule of the Black Prince. In an evil hour, he marched

with an army into Castile to restore Pedro the Cruel. (1367 A.D.) Success as usual crowned his arms; but Pedro refused to pay the expenses of the expedition, and he was therefore compelled to tax his French subjects. The Gascons appealed to Charles of France against such taxation, who, contrary to the treaty of Bretigni, summoned the prince to Paris. He answered that he would come, but it would be at the head of 60,000 men. War was thus renewed with France. Failing health, however, compelled the prince to give up the command, and then the English cause grew weak. After his departure for England, the French went on from conquest to conquest, till, out of all the possessions in France, only Bordeaux, Bayonne, and Calais remained to the English king. The Black Prince died, after a lingering illness, in the forty-sixth year of his age, universally regretted by the whole nation on account of his many virtues.

1376 A.D.

Edward did not long survive his favourite son; he died the following year, at Shene, on the Thames, near Richmond, after a reign of fifty years, and was buried at Westminster. He was a brave, wise, and popular king. His ambition and warlike spirit led him into unjust wars; but under his rule England enjoyed greater tranquillity than for a long time before or after. The wars with France employed all restless spirits, and tended to unite the various races which composed the people of this country. The Norman, the Saxon, and the Welshman fought side by side at Crecy and Poitiers, and there learned to forget their old hatred. Edward always consulted his Parliament on all important questions; and it grew, in consequence, in importance and power.

June 21, 1377 A.D.

By his queen, Philippa of Hainault, he had six sons and five daughters. The most distinguished of his sons were the Black Prince; Lionel Duke of Clarence; John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster (born at Ghent); Edmund Duke of York; and Thomas Duke of Gloucester.

Miscellaneous Facts.

To put an end to the Pope's practice of appointing foreign clergymen and others to clerical posts in England, or, as it was called, making 'provisions' to English livings, a law was passed, called the **Statute of Provisors** (1344), forbidding any such appointments; and in the following year this law was further improved by forbidding appeals from the king's courts to those of the Pope. Another important law made in this reign was the **Statute of Treasons** (1352), which limited the crime to three chief acts—(1) conspiring the king's death; (2) levying war against him; (3) aiding the king's foreign enemies.

Commerce greatly increased in this reign. Flemish weavers settled at Worsted, in Norfolk; and one Thomas Blanket, of Bristol, established the manufacture since known by his name. Wool was the chief article of export. The use of the French language in the English law courts was abolished, 1362. **Windsor Castle** was rebuilt by Edward III., the architect being William of Wykeham, the founder of Winchester School. The men employed in this work were levied, like an army, in every county. The **Order of the Garter** was instituted, 1349. It is said that the order and its motto originated in an incident which took place at a ball. The Countess of Salisbury having dropped her garter, the king picked it up and gave it to her, but at the same time, observing some of the courtiers smiling, he said, '*Honi soit qui mal y pense*'—'Evil be to him who evil thinks.' The title of 'Duke' was introduced by Edward. Rude cannon are said to have been used in the battle of Crecy.

The members of the parliament called **the Commons** began to assemble in a separate Chamber, and adopted the practice of electing a Speaker. **Geoffrey Chaucer**, 'the father of English poetry,' and **John Wickliffe**, the 'Morning Star of the Reformation,' flourished at this time.

RICHARD II. (Bordeaux).

Born 1367 A.D. Began to Reign 1377 A.D.
Dethroned 1399 A.D.

Richard's Accession.	Richard's Misgovernment.
Wat Tyler's Rebellion.	His Deposition and Character.
Invasion of Scotland.	Miscellaneous Facts.

Richard's Accession. Wat Tyler's Rebellion.

RICHARD II., the only son of Edward the Black Prince, ascended the throne in his eleventh year. He was surnamed Bordeaux, from the place of his birth. His coronation took place with greater magnificence than usual, and the streets of London were gay with arches and banners. The government was vested in a Council of Regency, from which his uncles were excluded, but nevertheless their influence in public affairs was very great.

The war with France still went on. To meet its expenses, a poll-tax of three groats was imposed upon every male and female in the country above the age of fifteen. This was evidently very unfair to the poor, for no difference was made between them and the rich, and the discontent in consequence was very widespread. The harsh way in which the tax was gathered turned the discontent of the people into rebellion. No doubt the condition of the poor at this time was very bad, and their grievances many, so that it needed but an opportunity to fan their smouldering discontent into violence. The first outbreak took place in Kent. A tax-gatherer visited the house of Walter, a tiler, commonly called **Wat Tyler**, in Dartford, and offered a gross insult to his daughter. The father struck the fellow dead on the spot. The bystanders praised the deed, and flew to arms to take vengeance upon their oppressors and to fight for liberty. The flame of insurrection spread instantly

through Kent and all the eastern counties as far as the Humber. Before the government had the least warning of the danger, the insurgents were on the way to London, under the leadership of Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others with feigned names. On Blackheath they assembled to the number of 100,000, and there their passions were further aroused by the address of one John Ball, a worthless priest, who took for his text the lines—

> When Adam delved, and Evé span,
> Who was then the gentleman?

The rising was one of the poor against the rich; the old cry of 'Down with the Norman!' gave place to 'Down with the rich!' and it was woe to the rich man who fell into the hands of the excited mob. They entered London, burned down the palace of the Savoy, broke open the prisons, cut off the heads of all the gentry on whom they could lay hands, and pillaged the houses of the rich. Richard met a party of them at Mile End, and promised to grant their demands. These were:—1. The abolition of slavery. 2. The reduction of the rent of land to fourpence an acre. 3. Liberty to buy and sell in fairs and market-towns. 4. A general pardon for past offences. The insurgents then withdrew to their homes. But Wat Tyler, at the head of 20,000 men, met the king next day at Smithfield, and behaved himself so insolently that Walworth, the Lord Mayor, struck him down with his sword, and the royal attendants despatched him. The rioters immediately prepared to avenge their leader's death, when the young king, with great presence of mind, rode up to them, exclaiming, 'What is the meaning of this disorder, my good people? Are ye angry that ye have lost your leader? I am your king: I will be your leader!' This boldness succeeded, and the rioters departed to their homes with the same promises as those made at Mile End. But in less than three weeks all the charters and promises were revoked, and more than 1,500 of the rioters were put to death.

June 12, **1381** A.D.

Invasion of Scotland. Misgovernment of England.

Richard's boldness at Smithfield, when only sixteen years of age, had led to expectations of a successful and prosperous reign; but as he advanced to manhood his want of ability to rule became evident, and disappointed the hopes of his friends. The Scots, in alliance with France, having invaded England, Richard led an
1385 expedition into Scotland, and burnt Edinburgh A.D. and other cities. Though he had an army of 60,000 men under his command, he attempted nothing more, but returned home in haste to his vain pleasures and the guidance of favourites. Border warfare, however, continued for some years. On one occasion the friends and retainers of Douglas the Scot and Percy of Northumberland met at **Otterbourne**, and there fought a fierce battle, which has been made famous in the old ballad of **Chevy Chase.** (1388 A.D.) Young Percy, surnamed **Hotspur**, from his impetuous valour, was taken prisoner, and Douglas slain; and the victory remained undecided.

Richard's indolent disposition, and his love of favourites, caused great dissatisfaction. His uncle, Thomas Duke of Gloucester, took advantage of this to make himself head of the government, and, under his influence, the Parliament called 'Wonderful and Merciless' put two of the king's favourites to death, 1388. The following year, Richard took the government into his own hands, and removed from the Council all who had opposed him. For some years affairs went on quietly, although there was much dissatisfaction with the king's love of vain show and pleasure. Richard attempted to silence the murmurs of the nobility by harsh measures. His uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, was suddenly arrested and sent to Calais, where he was mysteriously murdered; other leading men were fined, imprisoned or executed; and Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, was banished. Only two of his chief oppo-

nents remained unpunished—his cousin Hereford, son of the Duke of Lancaster, and the Duke of Norfolk. One day, these two having discussed their chances of sharing the same fate as the others, Norfolk was publicly accused by Hereford of slandering the king. Norfolk denied the charge, and appealed to the wager of battle. When both were about to enter the lists, the king forbade the duel, and banished Hereford for ten years and Norfolk for life. Richard, having thus got rid of his dangerous opponents, ruled like an absolute king. His will was law, and his government unjust; but no one ventured to say a word against any of his acts, though discontent was general and deeply-rooted.

Richard's Fall and Character.

When the Duke of Hereford was banished, the king said that he should succeed to his father's possessions; but on the death of the Duke of Lancaster, in 1399, Richard broke his promise and seized the estates. Hereford, now Duke of Lancaster, smarting under this injustice, landed at **Ravenspur,** in Yorkshire, with 60 persons, saying that he had come only to claim his rights. He was immediately joined by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, and as he marched southward new forces gathered round him daily, till on reaching London his followers numbered 60,000. Richard was absent in Ireland, and entirely ignorant of what was going on. When the news reached him, he hurried across to Milford Haven with a part of his army, but finding himself deserted, he went in disguise to Conway Castle. There he was persuaded to surrender himself to the Earl of Northumberland, who conducted him with mock respect to London. A Parliament forthwith assembled, and deposed him, on the ground of tyranny and bad government. The Duke of Lancaster then arose, and, crossing himself, said, 'In the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, I, Henry of Lancaster, claim this realm of England, as descended by right line of blood from the good lord King

Henry III.' The claim was immediately admitted, and the two Houses of Parliament hailed him as Henry IV. of England. The law of succession was thus broken, for the right to the throne by descent belonged to the descendants of Lionel Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III. This usurpation afterwards bore bitter fruits in the long wars of the Roses.

Sept. 30, **1399** A.D.

The deposed king was placed for safety in Pontefract Castle, but what became of him is not certainly known. Some say that he was there assassinated, or starved to death, early in the year 1400; while others say that he escaped to Scotland, where he lived in obscurity for many years.

Richard's character rendered him unfit to rule. To weakness of judgment was joined violence of temper, which in the last years of his government made him very tyrannical. He resembled Edward II. in disposition, general conduct, and unhappy fate.

Though twice married—first, to Anne of Bohemia; secondly, to Isabella, daughter of Charles VI. of France—he left no children.

Miscellaneous Facts.

A very important law was made in this reign to curb still further the papal power in England. It was passed in the year 1393, and is called the **Statute of Præmunire.** This Act outlawed any one, with loss of all property, who should introduce a foreign power into the land, or give obedience to any papal process which by right belonged to the king.

In the latter part of the reign of Edward III., **John Wickliffe,** a priest educated at Oxford, began to preach against the abuses of the Church. He translated the Bible into English, and referred to that book as the standard of religious truth. His numerous followers were called Wickliffites and **Lollards,** from the word *lollen* or *lullen,* 'to sing,' on account of their hymn-singing. He died of

palsy, in the year 1385, at Lutterworth Rectory, Leicestershire. Geoffrey Chaucer, who flourished at this time, was a follower of Wickliffe.

Westminster Hall was rebuilt by Richard. Anne of Bohemia is said to have introduced horned headdresses, the modern pin, and side-saddles. The great London companies of the Fishmongers, Leathersellers, and Mercers, were founded in this reign. Peers were first created by letters patent; and for the first time at the king's coronation, a knight threw down his glove as a challenge to any one to dispute the monarch's claim.

Social Condition of the People in the Time of

THE PLANTAGENETS PROPER.

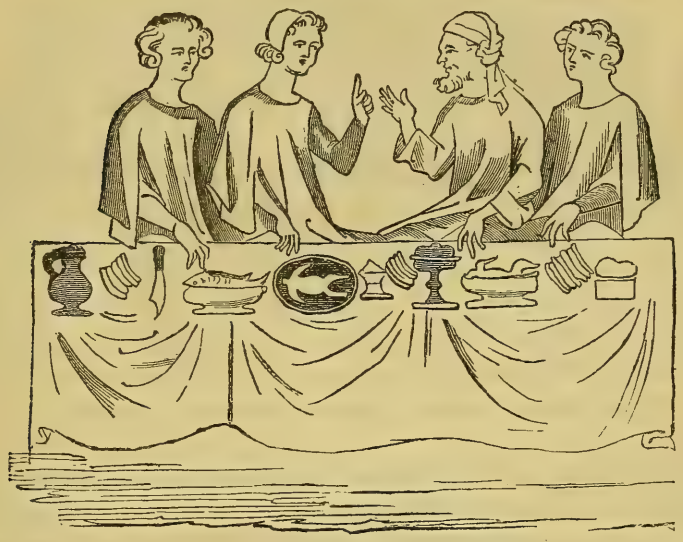
Food. Dress. Dwellings. Amusements. National Industry. Literature, etc.

Food.—During this period, a sumptuous and extravagant style of living was introduced amongst the nobility. In addition to the two meals that were taken in the Norman period, the practice of having luncheon and a supper of cakes and wine came into use. This increase of luxury in living seems due to the chief nobility's custom of gathering round their tables large numbers of retainers, and endeavouring to outshine each other in hospitality and sumptuousness. At the marriage banquet of Richard Earl of Cornwall, the son of King John, 30,000 dishes were served up; and in the following century an abbot of St. Augustine prepared 3,000 dishes for his guests. Richard II. is said to have daily maintained 10,000 retainers at his table. Housekeeping became so extravagant that Edward II. and Edward III. attempted to check it by special laws, but little regard was paid to them.

The lower classes of the people were content with the frugal fare of their forefathers, and were satisfied with quantity rather than quality.

Dress.—The style of dress of the upper classes continued much as it was before, till the reign of Edward II. The gentleman's loose tunic then gave way to a close-fitting garment, reaching down to the middle of the thigh, buttoned down the front, and fastened round the waist by a girdle. The material was of the finest stuff, sometimes of various colours, and richly embroidered. It had two sleeves, an inner one reaching to the wrist, and an outer

one ending above the elbow, from which hung streamers of white cloth, called tippets. The headdress consisted of a hood, attached to a cape, which was fastened round the



Royal Feast; illustrative of the period. (From Royal MS. Brit. Mus.)

neck. Long hose, and short laced boots tapering to a point, completed the costume. The dress was remarkable for its variety of colours. One-half the tunic and hose and each shoe were usually of different colours, a variety which gave to the wearer a most fantastic appearance.

Down to the times of Edward II., ladies wore dresses with long trailing skirts, but during that reign the fashion changed to the opposite extreme. The trains were cut off, and the skirts became so scant that, with this and a head-dress like that of the men, a lady at a distance could scarcely be distinguished from a gentleman. The hair, instead of hanging in tails as formerly, was coiled up behind, and enclosed in a network of gold, silver, or silk thread. Aprons, under the name of lapcloths, came into use; and mourning habits of a black colour began to be worn in the reign of Edward III. Foppery increased very

much in the time of Richard II. Men wore their hair long and carefully curled, and the long beard again came into fashion.

Daïs, with high Table and Tapestry; illustrative of the period.

Dwellings.—Henry II. gave a check to the building of baronial castles, by enacting that no residence should be fortified without the king's license. As the country became more settled, there arose a desire for greater splendour and comfort, and an attempt was made to give to the baronial residence the character of palace as well as fortress. Manor houses were still embattled and surrounded by a moat. The banquet hall, with its arched windows and lofty roof, was the most remarkable feature of the dwellings of the nobility, but the smoke still continued to find its way out through the roof or the latticed windows. Chimneys and glass windows were as yet very rare. Town houses were characterised by high gables and small latticed windows. The castles of Alnwick, Conway, Warwick, Kenilworth, and Windsor, are specimens of the baronial residences of this period.

Furniture continued as scanty as before; tables still stood on trestles, and chairs were only used on State occasions.

The houses of the poor remained unchanged—timber being the chief material in their structure.

During this period, **Gothic Architecture** took the place of the Norman style in ecclesiastical buildings. Pointed arches and profuse decorations are its distinguishing features. Its prevalence over Europe at this time is said to be due to the Society of Freemasons. Some of our finest cathedrals were built in this period. Up to the time of Edward I., the style of architecture was called the **Lancet, or Early English Gothic,** distinguished by the lancet-shape of its arched doorways and windows. It is also characterised by great simplicity in its composition. The finest examples of this style are the cathedrals of Salisbury, York, Westminster partly, Glasgow, and Aberdeen, and the ruined abbeys of Elgin and Holyrood. The reign of Edward II. brought in with it the **Decorated English** style, distinguished from the former by greater decoration and the tracery of its windows. Of this kind, the best specimens are Exeter Cathedral and the ruins of Croyland and Tintern. The great east and west windows were introduced into churches during this period, and such buildings were handsomely adorned with painted glass and decorated spires.

Amusements.—The tournament still continued to hold the chief place amongst out-door amusements. The display, however, both of expense and of taste, was much greater than in the preceding period. Ordeal combats or duels were closely connected with the tournament. In cases where a charge could not be readily proved, resort was had to the duel on the faith that Heaven would defend the right. These combats became very frequent in the reign of Richard II. Hunting and hawking were other favourite sports of the nobility and gentry, in which ladies took a very prominent share. The clergy, too, were very fond of these sports, so much so that in the reign of Richard II. every clergyman who had not a benefice of the annual value of 10*l.* was forbidden to keep a dog for hunting. It was a gentleman's pride to possess fleet steeds, high-soaring hawks, good hounds, and bright armour; and he seldom stirred abroad in times of peace without having a greyhound at his heels, or a falcon on his wrist.

The indoor games of the upper classes continued the same as in the former period; these were chess, draughts, tricks of jugglers, jesters, mummings, minstrel singing, and dancing. The jester was now found in every noble household. It was his duty to keep up the spirit of his jaded lord, and amuse the guests in the banquet-hall by jests and grotesque figures.

The common people had their mummings, quoits, foot and hand ball, and at Christmas the Feast of Fools, in which merriment ran wild and decency was forgotten; but the popular sport of the time was archery.

This was regulated and encouraged by law. Every person possessing an annual income of more than one hundred pence was obliged to furnish himself with a serviceable bow and arrows; and all persons were required to practise archery, to the exclusion of all other games, on holidays during the hours not occupied by divine service.

National Industry. — Commerce greatly increased during this period. Wool formed the great staple of the kingdom, and this article was chiefly exported to Flanders for purposes of manufacture. Edward III. invited weavers, dyers, and fullers from Flanders to settle in England, and to his wise policy we owe the establishment of the woollen manufacture in this country. The trade in wool was considered so honourable a pursuit that even kings engaged in it. The conqueror at Crecy was called in derision by his French rival, the 'Royal wool-merchant.' Flemish merchants were found in all the chief towns of the kingdom, and in the south-eastern ports of Ireland. They formed guilds for the protection of trade; and in London their hall or factory was called the Gildhall, now known as the Guildhall.

The discovery of the mariner's compass gave an impulse to navigation and commerce, but the ships of the period were small in size. One manned by thirty seamen was considered very large. The royal navy, in times of war, was chiefly composed of vessels belonging to private merchants.

The average rent of land was 4*d.* per acre; the price of

wheat, 4*s.* 6*d.* per quarter; a fat ox cost 16*s.*; a sheep, 1*s.* 2*d.*; a hog, 3*s.* 4*d.*; ale, 1*d.* per gallon; a pair of shoes, 4*d.*; and broad cloth, 1*s.* 4*d.* per yard.

In the reign of Edward III. a hay-maker received 1*d.* per day; a reaper of corn, 3*d.*; a mason or carpenter, 4*d.*; but to find the present value of these sums, we must multiply them by twenty or twenty-four.

A large portion of the trade of the country was transacted in fairs and markets. The shops of London tradesmen in the Cheap resembled sheds, and some of them were simply stalls in the street. The mercers dealt in toys and small wares, and their stock was as miscellaneous as that of a village shop in the present day. A grocer was called a pepperer, and dealt in drugs and spices, of which pepper formed the most costly article. Drapers were originally makers of cloth—'to drape' signified to make cloth. Tailors made women's garments, and dealers in articles of dress brought from Milan were called milliners. The population at this time numbered about 2,000,000. The number of free labourers increased very much. Many slaves obtained their freedom by taking refuge in a walled town, and residing there for a year and a day.

Language, Learning, and **Literature.**—The language at the beginning of this period has been termed Semi-Saxon; and from Henry III. to Edward III. **Old English.** In the reign of the latter monarch, the reaction against the Norman-French tongue became evident, and the statute passed in 1362 A.D., directing all pleas in courts of justice to be carried on in English, gave new life to the language of the people. The writers of Edward's reign inaugurated the period of **Middle English**, which lasted till the death of Queen Mary (1558 A.D.). The changes indicated by the terms Semi-Saxon, &c., did not take place at any one definite time, but gradually. The chief changes were—(1) the omission of many terminations or inflexions of nouns and verbs, and using in their place prepositions and auxiliaries; (2) the introduction of French and other foreign words.

The clergy still continued to be the only learned men of

the time, but their knowledge was very limited. The arts of war and the chase were all the nobles cared to know; few of them could read, and fewer still could write. Even many of those occupying high stations in the State were unable to write their names, and considered it no shame to sign documents with the mark of a cross. Hence it happened that the learned professions and most of the high offices in the State were filled by clergymen.

The chief cause of the ignorance of the laity was the scarcity of books. Before the invention of printing, all works were written by hand on parchment, hence called manuscripts, and this kind of labour was long and laborious. Parchment was the only material then used for writing upon, and the expense of this added considerably to the difficulty of multiplying copies. Libraries were only found in monasteries, where there was a room set apart for copying, called a *scriptorium*, or writing-room. The monks engaged in this work were skilful penmen and painters of letters. The headings and margins of their manuscripts were usually ornamented with tasteful designs, painted with various coloured inks and richly embellished with gold and silver; such embellishments were called *illuminations*. Books, thus illuminated, were very costly; 40*l*., equal to 800*l*. of present money, are said to have been given for a copy of the Bible.

Throughout the greater part of this period, Latin was the language of all legal documents, but towards the close, French was frequently employed. All books of theology, philosophy, and science were written in Latin. With the exception of a few metrical chronicles and romances, for the most part translations from the French, no composition appeared in English, as distinct from the Anglo-Saxon, till the end of the reign of Edward I. It was not till the fourteenth century that our literature fairly started into existence, when **Chaucer** appeared as the father of English poetry. In the two preceding centuries, the popular literary characters were the minstrels, or troubadours, who, roving from castle to castle, sang to the harp in spirit-stirring lays the glories of war and the chase, and the

praises of love and beauty. The chief writers of this period in Semi-Saxon, Old English, and Middle English, respectively, were the following:—

SEMI-SAXON (1066–1216).

LAYAMON, a Worcestershire priest: wrote a rhyming chronicle of Britain, said to be a translation of one of the Latin chronicles of Geoffrey of Monmouth.

OLD ENGLISH (1216–1327).

ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER (1230–1285): wrote a rhyming history of England, from the landing of Brutus to Edward I.

ROBERT MANNYNG or DE BRUNNE, the author of a chronicle like that of Robert of Gloucester.

MIDDLE ENGLISH (1327–1558).

JOHN GOWER (1320–1402): wrote moral poetry; called by Chaucer the 'Moral Gower.'

GEOFFREY CHAUCER (1328–1400): the father of English literature; the first great English poet. Chief work: 'The Canterbury Tales.'

JOHN MANDEVILLE (1300–1372): wrote an account of his travels, said 'to be the oldest book in English prose.'

JOHN WICKLIFFE (1324–1384), called 'The Morning Star of the English Reformation,' Professor of Divinity at Oxford, Rector of Lutterworth: translated the Bible into English.

WILLIAM LANGLAND, a priest: wrote 'The Vision of Piers Plowman,' a satire upon the corruption of the age (1362).

JOHN BARBOUR (1320–1395), Archdeacon of Aberdeen: wrote a poem about Robert Bruce.

JOHN FROISSART (1337–1401), a native of Valenciennes: was a distinguished French writer of this period. The four books of his 'Chronicle' relate chiefly to English affairs.

LEADING DATES OF THE PERIOD (1154–1399).

GENERAL EVENTS.

Scutage introduced	1159	A.D.	Henry II.
Becket murdered	1170	„	„
Massacre of the Jews	1189	„	Richard I.
Interdict	1208–14	„	John.
The first Bridge in London finished	1209	„	„
Begging Friars first appear in England	1221	„	Henry III.
Jews banished from England	1290	„	Edward I.
Baliol, King of Scotland	1292	„	„
Robert Bruce crowned	1306	„	„
Flemish Weavers settle at Norwich	1331	„	Edward II.
The Order of the Garter instituted	1349	„	Edward III.
The English Language adopted in Courts of Law	1362	„	„
Death of the Black Prince	1376	„	„
The Bible translated by Wickliffe	1380	„	Richard II.

CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES.

Council of Clarendon	1164	A.D.	Henry II.
Magna Charta	1215	„	John.
Mad Parliament held at Oxford	1258	„	Henry III.
House of Commons founded	1265	„	„
Statute of Mortmain passed	1279	„	Edward I.
Ordainers	1310	„	Edward II.
Statute of Provisors passed	1344	„	Edward III.
The Statute of Treasons passed	1352	„	„
The Wonderful Parliament	1388	„	Richard II.
Statute of Præmunire passed	1393	„	„

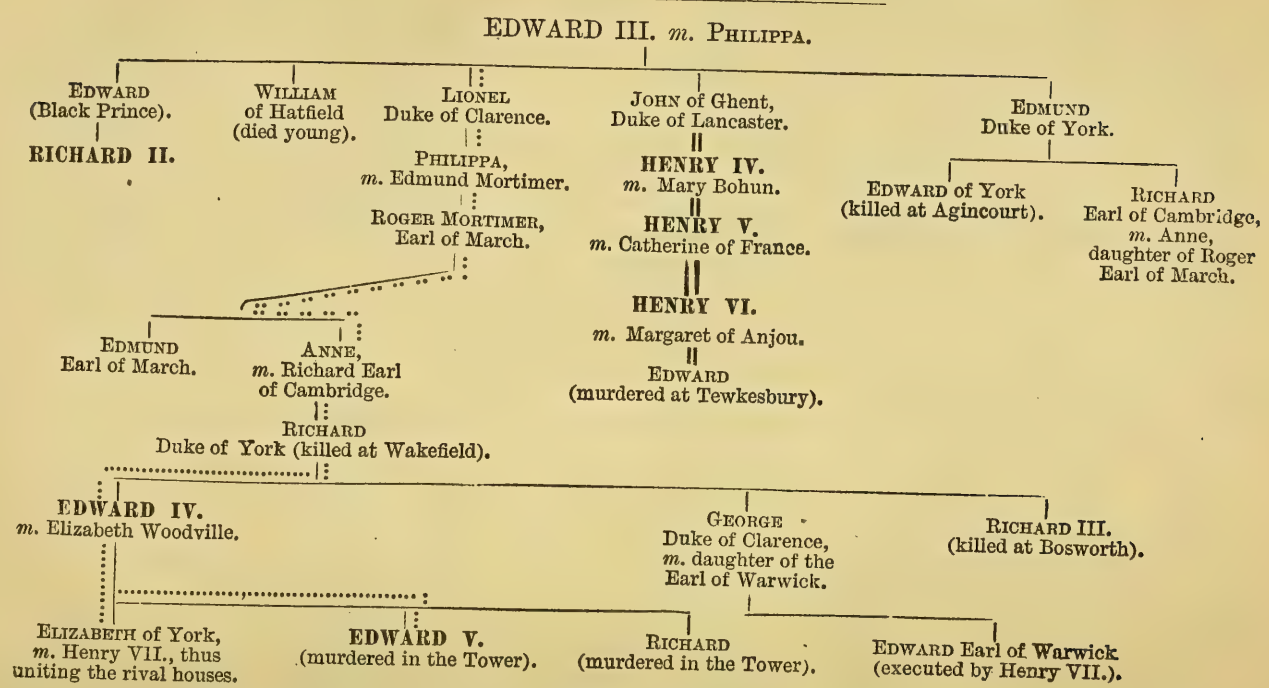
WARS, BATTLES, TREATIES.

The Third Crusade	1190–92	A.D.	Richard I.
Battle of Bouvines	1214	„	John.
„ Lincoln	1217	„	Henry III.
„ Lewes	1264	„	„
„ Evesham	1265	„	„
„ Falkirk	1297	„	Edward I.
„ Bannockburn	1314	„	Edward II.
„ Halidon Hill	1333	„	Edward III.
French War begins	1338	„	„
Battle of Sluys	1340	„	„
„ Crecy	1346	„	„
„ Neville's Cross	„	„	„
„ Poitiers	1356	„	„
Treaty of Bretigni, or the Great Peace	1360	„	„
Wat Tyler's Rebellion	1381	„	Richard II.
Battle of Otterbourne, or Chevy Chase	1388	„	„

CHANGES OF DOMINION.

Conquest of Ireland	1172	A.D.	Henry II.
„ Wales	1282	„	Edward I.
Calais taken	1347	„	Edward III.
Poitou and Guienne acquired	1360	„	„
Loss of the French Provinces	1375	„	„

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER.



N.B.—The names with the *dotted lines* show the descent of the House of York; those with the *double straight lines*, the House of Lancaster.

A.D.
"
."

13 A.D.

he King.

f Lan-
. The
dmund
Duke of
ohn of
be re-
s of the
n years
ept by

throne,
nobility
t, and
le won
es were
irators
refused
arched

ENGLAND
LONDON
Dover
Calais
Boulogne
Boulonnais 1360
Ctᵉ Flandres
Dainme
EMPIRE (ROMANIC) GERMANIC
PICARDY
Amiens
Aques
Rouen
Gournay
NORMANDY
Caen
Beaumont
Evreux
Falaise (1066)
(Lost 1204)
Tillieres
Vernevil
*l Alderney
*l Guernsey
*l Jersey
BRETAGNE
1165
Henry 2nd Succeeds to these Provinces 1151
MAINE
ANJOU
Nantes
Loches
Mirebeau
TOURAINE
1205
PARIS OF FRANCE
DOMAIN OF PHILIP AUGUSTUS
Royal Domain at the accession of Philip Augustus (1180)
1216
ORLEANNOIS
Orleans
R. Loire
Ctᵉ Nevers
COMTÉ OF CHAMPAGNE
Dʸ OF BURGUNDY
POITOU
with Queen Eleanor lost 1206
1152
LA MARCHE
Bourbonois
Lyonnais
Lyons
SAINTONGE
ANGOUMOIS
Limoges
Limousin
Chalus lost in 1205
AUVERGNE
Perigord
2nd Henry
AQUITAINE
Gascony
acquired 1152
Quercy
1159 – 1214
Provinces
These
GASCONY
Beaucaire
COMTÉ OF TOULOUSE
Bearn
SPAIN
Reference to Colours
Provinces belonging to England in the reign of Henry 2nd Red
do remaining to England at the accession of Henry 3rd dark Red
Royal Domain of France at the accession of Philip Augustus tinted Green
do in 1216 . . . . Green outline
MAP OF THE
ENGLISH POSSESSIONS
IN
FRANCE,
in the 12th & 13th Centuries.

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER.

EDWARD III. *m.* PHILIPPA.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

HENRY IV. (Son of John of Ghent) . . 1399 A.D.
HENRY V. (Son) . . . . . 1413 „
HENRY VI. (Son) . . . . . 1422–61 „

HENRY IV. (Bolingbroke).

Born 1367 A.D. Began to Reign 1399 A.D. Died 1413 A.D.

His Accession.
War with Scotland.
Owen Glendower's Insurrection.
The Percies' Rebellion.
War with France.
Prince of Wales.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Accession. War with Scotland.

HENRY IV., the son of John of Ghent, Duke of Lancaster, was born at Bolingbroke, in Lincolnshire. The right to the crown by descent belonged to Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, a descendant of Lionel Duke of Clarence, the *third* son of Edward III., while John of Ghent was only the *fourth* son. This fact must be remembered, as it afterwards led to the long civil wars of the Roses. The Earl of March being a child of seven years old, his claims were passed over, and he was kept by Henry in honourable custody in Windsor Castle.

Though Henry had succeeded in mounting the throne, his seat at first was not very secure. Many of the nobility were dissatisfied with the change of government, and several foreign kings refused to acknowledge a title won by usurpation. The plots of the discontented nobles were treacherously revealed to the king, and the conspirators perished upon the scaffold. As Robert of Scotland refused to recognise Henry's right to the throne, the latter marched

with an army to Leith, but, provisions falling short, he was compelled to retire. This invasion revived the old hostility of the border lords, and in 1402 Earl Douglas led 10,000 Scots across the border. Henry Percy (Hotspur), the son of the Earl of Northumberland, met them at **Homildon Hill**, slew 800 of their number, and captured Douglas and several of the Scottish nobility.

1402 A.D.

The English king ordered the Percies not to ransom their prisoners—an order which gave great offence to that family, as it interfered with their rights according to the laws of war in that age.

Owen Glendower's Insurrection. The Percies' Rebellion.

Henry's usurpation of the government encouraged the Welsh to make an insurrection. Owen Glendower, the great-grandson of Llewellyn, the last prince of Wales, had been in the service of Richard II., and on the deposition of his master, he withdrew to Wales, and was soon in open quarrel with Lord Grey of Ruthyn, who had seized his estates. Henry sent Sir Edmund Mortimer, uncle of the Earl of March, to the assistance of Lord Grey, but the Welsh rallied round Glendower, took Mortimer and Grey prisoners, and defied once more the English power. (1402 A.D.)

The Welsh leader received encouragement in his resistance from the family of the Percies, whose anger concerning the ransom of the Scots had been further increased by Henry's refusal to obtain the release of their kinsman Mortimer. A confederacy was formed against the king by the Earl of Northumberland, his son Hotspur, his brother the Earl of Worcester, and Douglas. Their plan was to join Glendower, and then to march against their common enemy. A sudden illness prevented the elder Percy from accompanying the army, but Hotspur, marching with 12,000 men, was attacked by the king at **Shrewsbury**, before Glendower's troops could cross the Severn. The battle was long and bloody;

July 23, 1403 A.D.

both sides fought with the greatest bravery; but Hotspur's death in the thick of the fight decided the fortunes of the day, and the hard-won victory fell to the royalists. The loss on both sides was great; one-third of the rebel army fell on the field; Worcester and Douglas were taken prisoners; the former was beheaded at Shrewsbury, but the latter was treated with marked respect. In this battle Henry, the young Prince of Wales, distinguished himself, and gave evidence of the valour and skill which made him renowned in after years. The Earl of Northumberland was brought to trial for his share in the confederacy, and received pardon. The Welsh held out, though several armies were sent against them, till the following reign.

The pardon of Northumberland did not reconcile him to the king. Two years afterwards, he entered into another conspiracy with the Earl of Nottingham, and Scrope, Archbishop of York; but failing again, he escaped to Scotland, while the two other leaders were taken and executed. This is the first instance in English history in which an archbishop perished by the hands of the executioner. (1405.) In the same year, Henry obtained an advantage over the Scots by the capture of Prince James, the son of Robert III., while on his way to France. The prince was detained in England for nineteen years.

Northumberland, after living for some time as an exile in Scotland, invaded the northern counties for the recovery of his estates, but at **Bramham Moor**, in Yorkshire, he was defeated by the sheriff of the county and slain. (1408.)

War with France. The Prince of Wales. Death, etc. of the King.

The King of France was very angry at the deposition of his brother-in-law Richard II., and considered his truce with England at an end. He demanded the dowry and jewels of the widowed Isabella; but Henry kept them as part of the ransom of King John, captured at Poitiers. Though no open declaration of war was made between the two countries, hostile squadrons scoured the seas, and the

coasts of each were often ravaged. The unhappy state of the government of France gave Henry an advantage. Charles VI. became imbecile, and the country was torn by the rival factions of the houses of Orleans and Burgundy. By assisting each of these in turn, as advantage promised best, Henry regained the sovereignty of Aquitaine, Poitou, and Angoulême.

The conduct of young Henry, Prince of Wales, was a source of great grief to his father. Though showing, now and then, gleams of a better nature, he was led astray by low and worthless companions. When one of these was brought to trial for riotous conduct, the young prince made his appearance in court, for the purpose of overawing the judge, Sir William Gascoigne. The trial ended in the prisoner's condemnation; and when sentence of imprisonment was pronounced, the prince, in a rage, drew his sword upon the judge. For this unlawful act, Gascoigne sent the royal offender to prison. The prince submitted with a good grace, and afterwards treated the judge with marked respect for his courage and faithful vindication of the laws.

Henry did not long survive this occurrence. Fits of epilepsy wore out his strength; and the last seized him while praying in the chapel of Edward the Confessor, at Westminster. He died in the forty-sixth year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign. (March 20, 1413.)

Henry was remarkable for forethought, vigilance, and courage. The successful way in which he crushed all opposition and maintained himself firmly on the throne is an evidence of the vigour and daring of his character. He was a man of middle size; and sometime before his death his face was disfigured by an eruption, which the superstition of the time said was a judgment for the execution of Archbishop Scrope.

He was twice married; but his children were all by his first wife, Mary de Bohun, daughter of the Earl of Hereford, and these were: Henry, who became king; Thomas Duke of Clarence; John Duke of Bedford; Humphrey Duke of Gloucester; Blanche, and Philippa.

Miscellaneous Facts.

This reign is noted for the rapid growth of the power of the House of Commons. The members claimed the exclusive right of originating money bills; they maintained the liberty of discussing all public questions without the king's interference; they secured for themselves freedom from arrest during their attendance at the Parliament; and they claimed protection from undue returns of elections being made by the sheriffs in the interest of the court.

This reign, too, is distinguished for the first execution for religious opinions. Henry, in order to secure the support of the clergy, passed a law, in 1401, by which persons accused of heretical opinions might be tried by the bishop and burned by the sheriff. The Lollards, in consequence, were persecuted, and many of them suffered death. **John Sawtre**, a London clergyman, was burned at Smithfield (1401), being the first in England who died for his religious opinions. Lollardism, however, increased more than ever.

At the coronation of Henry, the **Order of the Bath** was instituted. It was so called because those who were to become members had first to bathe themselves, as a token of the loyalty and purity of their minds. The celebrated **Richard Whittington**, a rich London merchant, lived in this reign. He devoted a great portion of his wealth, which was chiefly realised by his ship, 'The Cat,' to religious and charitable purposes.

A plague visited London, and carried off 30,000 people (1407.)

HENRY V. (Monmouth).

Born 1388 A.D. Began to Reign 1413 A.D. Died 1422 A.D.

Henry's Accession and Reform.
Persecution of the Lollards.
War with France.
Agincourt.
Treaty of Troyes.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Henry's Accession and Reform. Persecution of the Lollards.

Henry V., the eldest son of the last king, was born in Monmouth. His father's death worked a great change in his character. Dismissing his riotous companions, he gathered round him the wisest of his father's counsellors, among whom was Judge Gascoigne. He liberated the Earl of March, and restored the Percy family to their estates.

The Lollards, on account of their rapid increase, were becoming a powerful body in the kingdom; and as their opinions were thought to be dangerous to the Church and king, the fire of persecution was directed against them. The leader of this party, **Sir John Oldcastle**, commonly called **Lord Cobham**, was condemned to the flames and sent to the Tower; but he managed to escape before the day of execution. He is said to have formed a conspiracy to seize the king's person; and a large party of Lollards having been found in St. Giles's Fields at midnight, gave a colour to this accusation. The meeting was dispersed by Henry's vigilance; about thirty who had attended it suffered death; Cobham fled to Wales, and was not apprehended till four years afterwards. He was then put to death by being roasted in chains over a slow fire. (1418 A.D.)

War with France. Agincourt.

The distracted state of France, caused by the illness of Charles VI., and the rivalry of the Orleanists and Burgundians, presented a great temptation to a young, ardent, and ambitious prince to make an attempt to recover the lost English possessions in that country. Henry, seizing his opportunity, demanded the restoration of all the possessions held in France by King John, the hand of Charles's daughter in marriage, and with her a dowry of 2,000,000 crowns. Having received an unsatisfactory answer to this demand, the young king revived the claim of Edward III. to the French crown, and immediately prepared to maintain it by force of arms. He was just on the point of starting for France, when a conspiracy to put the Earl of March on the throne was discovered and nipped in the bud. The leaders —his cousin the Earl of Cambridge, Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey—suffered death, but the Earl of March received a general pardon. (1415 A.D.)

After crushing this conspiracy, Henry set sail from Southampton with 30,000 men, and landed at Harfleur, which he took after a siege of five weeks. During the operations, one-half his army perished from sickness and wounds, and, as the transports had been sent home, he determined to march with the remainder of his troops to Calais. The French, however, had by this time massed a strong force in Normandy, and had taken every precaution against the invader. Henry found all the country laid waste, and all the bridges across the Somme broken down. He fortunately found an unguarded ford, and succeeded in carrying his army across. Marching straight for Calais, he was surprised to find a French force of 60,000 men blocking up his way on the plains of Agincourt. There was nothing left but to cut a way through, and though the odds were fearful, at least four to one, Henry, remembering the glorious victories of Crecy and Poitiers, determined to fight to the last. The archers, protected by sharp stakes fixed in the ground, were placed in the front, and a wood

on each side covered the flanks. The French horse and men-at-arms advanced to the attack, but were quickly thrown into confusion by the English bowmen. It was Poitiers over again: three hours' fighting found the field of battle covered with the slaughtered French. The dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, with 14,000 men, were taken prisoners; and the Constable of France and the flower of the French nobility, together with 10,000 men, fell on the fatal field of **Agincourt.** The English loss amounted only to 1,600 men.

Oct. 25, **1415** A.D.

Henry, not being in a position to follow up his victory, proceeded to Calais, and thence to Dover, where he was received with the greatest enthusiasm. The people of London welcomed his return with delight; and the Parliament voted him large sums of money for the further prosecution of the war.

Treaty of Troyes. Death and Character of Henry.

In 1417 A.D., Henry again set sail for France, with a larger army than before. The smaller towns submitted to him at once; Rouen fell after a siege of six months, and then all Normandy was at his feet. The factions which were ruining France were about to sink their differences in the face of a foreign invasion, when the murder of the Duke of Burgundy threw all the power of his party on the side of the English king. Thirsting for revenge, that faction agreed to grant all the demands of Henry. A treaty was signed at Troyes, in which it was stipulated: (1) that Henry should marry the Princess Catherine; (2) that Charles VI. should retain the title and dignity of King of France during his lifetime; (3) that Henry should be regent for the present, and should succeed to the throne on the death of Charles.

1420 A.D.

A few days afterwards, Henry married Catherine, and went to Paris, where the Treaty of Troyes was ratified by the Estates of the realm. The Dauphin of France, eldest son of Charles, however, was still in arms, but quite unable

to withstand the prowess of Henry. When the latter visited England with his young bride, the dauphin, assisted by a large number of Scots, defeated the English troops at Beaujé, and slew the Duke of Clarence. Henry immediately returned to France, where his presence soon turned the tide of victory against the dauphin. He chased his enemies across the Loire to the south, where again they were pursued by the united forces of the English and Burgundians, almost to the point of destruction. Just at this time Henry's queen was delivered of a son, whose birth caused great rejoicings both in Paris and London. In the midst of all this prosperity and glory, the hand of death fell on the young king, and put an end to all his mighty projects. Seized with a fistula, which baffled the skill of his physicians, he died at Vincennes, near Paris, in the thirty-fifth year of his age and tenth of his reign. His body was brought to England, and buried in Westminster Abbey. He left the regency of France to his elder brother, the Duke of Bedford; that of England to his younger, the Duke of Gloucester; and the care of his son's person to the Earl of Warwick.

Aug. 31, **1422** A.D.

Henry V. was a warrior and a statesman. The greatest fault in his character was ambition. He had the power of attaching friends warmly to his side, and winning favour from his enemies. In person, he was rather tall, and handsome; his limbs were slender, but full of vigour, and he excelled in all manly and warlike exercises.

Miscellaneous Facts.

Henry's widow married soon after his death a Welsh gentleman, Sir Owen Tudor; she bore him two sons, of whom the eldest was Edmund, Earl of Richmond, who became the father of Henry VII.

The annual revenue of the crown at this time amounted to about 36,000*l.*, but the expenditure often exceeded this amount. Calais alone is said to have cost nearly 20,000*l.* a year. But the Parliament, dazzled by Henry's victories,

willingly granted him large sums of money; taxes were even granted to him for life.

During this reign, the English navy, as distinct from the merchant service, was established. Henry caused some ships of war to be built at Southampton.

In 1415, London was for the first time lighted with lanterns; and a year afterwards, herrings, cured in the Dutch fashion, were first sold in the same city.

Knight in Armour, and Lady's Costume of the period.

HENRY VI. (Windsor).

Born 1421 A.D. Began to Reign 1422 A.D.
Dethroned 1461 A.D.

The Regency.
English Affairs in France.
Joan of Arc.
Loss of French Provinces.
Fall of the Dukes of Gloucester and Suffolk.
Jack Cade's Rebellion.
Richard Duke of York.
Wars of the Roses.
Character of Henry.
Miscellaneous Facts.

The Regency. English Affairs in France. Joan of Arc. Loss of French Provinces.

HENRY VI., the only child of Henry V., was born at Windsor, and was only nine months old at his father's death. The Parliament appointed a council of twenty to manage the affairs of the kingdom; the regency of France was given to the Duke of Bedford; Humphrey Duke of Gloucester was made Protector of England, and the young king's person and education were entrusted to Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, the son of John of Gaunt, in conjunction with the Earl of Warwick. A few weeks after the death of Henry V., Charles VI. of France died, and, according to the treaty of Troyes, the infant Henry was proclaimed King of France. But the late dauphin, assuming the title of Charles VII. of France on his father's death, asserted his rightful claim to the throne. At Crevant, in 1423, and Verneuil, in 1424, he met with crushing defeats, and was compelled to retire across the Loire in a hopeless state. In 1428, Bedford formed the resolution of crossing that river, and marching into those provinces in the south of France which adhered to the cause of Charles. The first step necessary for this purpose was the capture of Orleans, and it was therefore determined to besiege that town. This work was entrusted to the Earl of Salisbury,

one of the most famous commanders of the age, but he was killed during the siege, and was succeeded by the Earl of Suffolk. While the English lay before Orleans, a battle took place at Rouvrai, in the neighbourhood, which is known as the **Battle of Herrings**. As Lent was drawing near, a convoy of herrings was sent from Paris to the English camp, and on the way it was attacked unsuccessfully by a superior French force. (1429.) The failure of this attack and the successful progress of the siege greatly discouraged the French. Charles was about to give up the contest and leave France, when the tide of victory was turned in his favour through the agency of a peasant girl.

In the village of Domremi, near Vaucouleurs, in Lorraine, there lived a country girl of nineteen years of age, named **Joan of Arc**, who was a servant in the village inn. As she heard, day after day, the story of the wrongs of her king and people, her enthusiastic nature was stirred to its depths, and she proclaimed herself inspired by Heaven to deliver her country. At first her statements were received with ridicule, but at length, by her earnestness and perseverance, she succeeded in gaining admission to the presence of Charles. She told him that Heaven had sent her to drive the English from Orleans, and take him to Rheims for his coronation. Pretending to believe her story, he paid her every honour; and to inspirit the soldiers, wonderful stories were circulated in proof of her divine mission. Mounted on a grey steed, and clad in armour, her first exploit was to conduct a convoy of provisions through the besieging lines into Orleans. The English, believing her to be a sorceress, lost their wonted courage, and let her pass without striking a blow. The townspeople were as much elated as the besiegers were dispirited. Every sally from the town under the peasant girl's leadership succeeded, and the English were compelled at last to raise the siege. This great success obtained for the heroic girl the name of the 'Maid of Orleans.'

1429 A.D.

Her first promise was now fulfilled; and the coronation of Charles was the next thing to be done. Two months after

the raising of the siege of Orleans, the king was actually crowned at Rheims. Then Joan said her mission was at an end, and begged leave to return to her home, but Charles, knowing her worth to his cause, persuaded her to remain. In a sortie from Compiègne, in 1430 A.D., she was taken prisoner by the Burgundians, and handed over to the English regent. After an imprisonment of twelve months, she was brought to trial on the charge of sorcery, and was condemned by an ecclesiastical court to be burnt. This cruel sentence was carried out in the market-place of Rouen.

June 14, **1431** A.D.

The coronation of Charles at Rheims led the English to proceed at once with the coronation of their young king. Henry was first crowned at Westminster, and then taken to Paris, where a similar ceremony took place. But the English cause in France grew worse and worse. The powerful Duke of Burgundy quarrelled with the Duke of Bedford, and he determined, in consequence, to reconcile himself with the court of France. At Arras, in 1435 A.D., he formed a treaty of friendship with Charles. This event was almost immediately followed by the death of the Duke of Bedford at Rouen. Before the new regent could arrive, Paris fell into the hands of the French king. Disputes in England between the Duke of Gloucester and the Bishop of Winchester prevented proper assistance being sent to France, and in 1444, the English were glad to make a truce of two years. During this period, Henry married Margaret, daughter of René, Duke of Anjou and Maine. The Earl of Suffolk, who had negotiated this marriage, engaged by a secret article to give up the provinces of Maine and Anjou, which were called the 'Keys of Normandy,' to Margaret's father; and as he was a dependent of Charles VII., the gift of these places proved most injurious to the English cause. As soon as ever the truce expired, French troops poured into Normandy through Maine and Anjou, and soon effected an easy conquest. Turning to the south, the cities of Guienne quickly fell into their hands, till, in 1451, only Calais remained in possession of the English.

Fall of the Dukes of Gloucester and Suffolk. Jack Cade's Rebellion.

During the long minority of the king, and the wars in France, affairs in England were in a very unsatisfactory state. As Henry grew up to manhood, he showed signs of weakness of intellect and unfitness for government; and therefore the control of public affairs continued in the hands of the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort. The marriage of Henry with Margaret of Anjou, who was a princess of strong intellect and great energy, soon worked a change in the government. She lent all her influence to the party of Beaufort, and Gloucester, two years after the marriage, was accused of treason, thrown into prison, and murdered. Scarcely had six weeks passed before Beaufort followed his nephew Gloucester to the grave. The Duke of Suffolk, who had brought about the marriage with Margaret, now became the king's chief adviser; but he was most unpopular, on account of his share in the loss of the French provinces. He was also suspected of having the chief hand in the death of Gloucester. Parliament impeached him for high treason in 1450; but the king, to save his life, banished him for five years. His enemies, however, were too active and determined to allow him to escape. The ship which was taking him to Calais was boarded near Dover by some sailors sent on purpose, who took him on board their own craft. There he was saluted with the words, 'Welcome, traitor!' and after a mock trial he was placed in a boat, his head struck off with a rusty sword, and his body thrown into the sea.

A crime like that just mentioned shows how unsettled the country was, and how ripe for the schemes of designing men. A rumour was set afloat in Kent that the king was preparing to punish the people of that county because they had furnished the ships which had seized the Duke of Suffolk. An insurrection immediately broke out, headed by **Jack Cade**, an Irishman, who took the favourite name of Mortimer. Twenty thousand men marched under his

banner to Blackheath, and, after defeating the royal forces at Seven Oaks, he entered London in triumph. At first, he maintained good order and discipline among his followers, but on the third day the pillage of some rich houses roused the Londoners, who drove the rebels out of the city, and repulsed them with great slaughter. The Kentish men were so dispirited that, on a promise of pardon, they withdrew to Rochester, and dispersed to their homes. The pardon, however, was withdrawn, and Cade, in his attempt to escape, was killed in a garden near Lewes, Sussex, by a gentleman named Iden. His head was struck off and placed on London Bridge.

1450 A.D.

Richard Duke of York. Wars of the Roses. Character of Henry.

After the suppression of Cade's rebellion, the Duke of Somerset, grandson of John of Gaunt, was placed at the head of the government. He had formerly been governor of Normandy, but the loss of that province made him very unpopular with the English. Besides, as Henry had as yet no heir, and as his government was not in favour with a great portion of the people, attention was turned to Richard Duke of York, the son of Anne, heiress of the house of Lionel Duke of Clarence. At that time, Richard held the post of Lieutenant of Ireland; but hearing of Somerset's promotion, he marched to London at the head of 10,000 men, and demanded that minister's removal from power and authority. This attempt failed, and York, after a short imprisonment, was allowed to retire to his castle of Wigmore, on the borders of Wales. (1452). In the following year, the queen gave birth to a son, who received the name of Edward. Soon after, the king became insane, and the York party was strong enough to upset the government. Somerset was sent to the Tower, and Richard of York was appointed by the Parliament Protector of the kingdom. Henry's recovery in the following year again brought a change in the government. York was removed from his protectorate; Somerset

1454 A.D.

was released, and re-appointed to his former post. The Duke of York then levied an army for the purpose of removing Somerset; but as yet he made no claim to the throne. Now began the **Wars of the Roses**, which continued for thirty years, during which time twelve pitched battles were fought, and eighty princes of the blood were slain, and almost all the ancient nobility destroyed. The party of York took for its badge a white rose; the party of the house of Lancaster a red one; hence the name of the quarrel.

The first battle took place at **St. Albans**, in which Somerset was killed and the king taken prisoner. The death of Somerset removed the cause of the strife; and when Henry again fell ill, the Duke of York was appointed Protector. In 1456, the king recovered his authority, and for the next two or three years the contending parties were to all appearances friendly to each other. The chief supporters of Richard of York were the Earl of Salisbury and his son the Earl of Warwick. A quarrel between one of the king's retinue and one of the Earl of Warwick's led to a fierce party combat, and Warwick, thinking that his life was in danger, fled to Calais, of which he was governor. The Yorkists and Lancastrians again took up arms against each other, and the civil war began in earnest.

May 23, **1455** A.D.

At **Bloreheath**, in Staffordshire, the Lancastrians were again defeated, with the loss of their leader, Lord Audley. A month later the Lancastrians gained an easy victory at **Ludlow**, through the defection of the Marshal of the Yorkist camp; and Richard, in consequence, withdrew to Ireland. The following year, the Yorkists were again in arms under the command of the Earl of Warwick, and defeated the royal forces at **Northampton**, where the king was taken prisoner; while the queen and her son sought refuge in Scotland. Now, for the first time, Richard openly claimed the crown by right of descent. The Parliament acknowledged his claims, and agreed that he should succeed to the throne on the death of Henry.

Sept. 23, **1459** A.D.

July 10, **1460** A.D.

But Margaret's spirit was roused when she heard that her boy was to be shut out from the succession, and, collecting an army, she marched southwards, and defeated the Yorkists at **Wakefield**. Here, Richard was killed; and his head, adorned with a paper crown, was fixed upon the walls of York. His second son, the Duke of Rutland, a youth of seventeen, was murdered by Lord Clifford in revenge for his father's death, who had perished in the battle of St. Albans. The Earl of Salisbury, too, the father of the 'King-Maker,' was taken prisoner, and beheaded at Pontefract.

Dec. 31, **1460** A.D.

This defeat and bloodshed made the Yorkists furious. The cause of the fallen Duke was taken up by his eldest son, Edward Earl of March, who defeated the Lancastrians at **Mortimer's Cross**, in Herefordshire. In this battle, Owen Tudor, who had married the widow of Henry V., was taken prisoner, and beheaded in retaliation for the cruelties committed at Wakefield. Margaret made up for this defeat by a victory over the Earl of Warwick at **St. Albans**, where the king fell into the hands of his own party. The citizens of London refused to receive her, and as the young Duke of York was marching from the west with a large force, she was compelled to retreat northwards. The duke, however, was received in London with shouts of joy; and having made his claim to the throne in the presence of the peers, prelates, and citizens, he was proclaimed king, under the title of Edward IV.

Feb. 2, **1461** A.D.

Feb. 17, **1461** A.D.

March 3, **1461** A.D.

Thus the dynasty of the House of Lancaster was brought to an end, after lasting sixty-two years. Henry VI. lived ten years longer. He was totally unfit, both in body and mind, to hold the reins of government. In private life he was meek, gentle, and forgiving. To him we are indebted for the school of Eton, and for King's College, Cambridge.

By his wife, Margaret of Anjou, he had one son, Edward, who afterwards married Anne, daughter of the Earl of Warwick.

Miscellaneous Facts.

Under the Lancastrian kings, the power of the Parliament made good progress. The Peers continued to hold the chief power, but the right of granting supplies of money lay with the Commons, and this constituted their strength. In this reign the practice of introducing 'Bills' into Parliament commenced. The right of voting for the election of members of parliament was limited to those who owned lands of the annual value of forty shillings. The members were allowed four shillings per day for travelling expenses, and every protection was afforded them; but sometimes there was considerable difficulty in getting candidates for parliamentary honours.

In the wars of this reign gunpowder came into general use. Eton College, and King's College, Cambridge, were founded by Henry VI.; Queen's College, Cambridge, by his queen Margaret. Glasgow University and the colleges of All Souls and Magdalene, Oxford, were established. The title of **Viscount** first came into use in this reign; and the first **Lord Mayor's Show** took place in London.

Science and art made steady progress. **Halley's Comet** was first observed in 1456; and the manufacture of **glass** in England began in 1457. On the Continent, the important art of **printing** was invented and improved. **John Geinsfleish**, of Haarlaam, first invented the art, 1430; **Faust** printed the Psalms from wooden blocks, 1442; **Guttenburg** cut types from metals, 1444; the roller printing press was invented, 1450; and types cast in hollow moulds by **Schœffer** came into use, 1452. Engraving on copper was inventod by a goldsmith of Florence, 1458. The knowledge of geography increased. The **Senegal** River and the **Azores** were discovered by the Portuguese, and the **Cape Verde** Islands by the Genoese.

HOUSE OF YORK.

EDWARD IV. (Son of Richard of York) . .	1461 A.D.
EDWARD V. (Son)	1483 „
RICHARD III. (Uncle)	1483–5 „

EDWARD IV.

Born 1443 A.D. Began to Reign 1461 A.D. Died 1483 A.D.

Wars of the Roses Continued.
Deposition of Edward.
Henry Restored.
Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury.
War with France.
Treaty of Pecquigni.
Duke of Clarence.
Death and Character of Edward.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Wars of the Roses Continued.

EDWARD IV. was nineteen years old when he was proclaimed king by his own party. He had still much to do before gaining full possession of the crown, as the North continued faithful to Henry. The Earl of Warwick, at the head of 49,000 men, was sent against Margaret, who had a force of 60,000 in Yorkshire, and at **Towton** the armies met, where a most desperate battle took place, which ended in the complete defeat of the Lancastrians. No quarter was given, and nearly 38,000 men perished on that fatal field. Margaret and Henry fled to Scotland, while Edward returned to London to summon a Parliament for the settlement of the government. This Assembly acknowledged Edward's right to the throne, and passed an Act of condemnation of Henry VI., Queen Margaret, and Prince Edward. The spirited queen went to France for help, and returned with a body of troops. Around these, the shattered ranks of the Lancastrians again rallied; but at **Hedgeley Moor** (April 25) and at **Hexham** (May 15) they were defeated by the

Mar. 29, **1461** A.D.

1464 A.D.

Yorkists. Margaret and her son escaped into the woods, and through the kindness of a robber they reached the sea-coast, whence they escaped to Flanders. Henry was not so fortunate; for a twelvemonth he lay concealed in Lancashire, but he was at last discovered and thrown into the Tower.

Deposition of Edward. Restoration of Henry.

Much of the success of Edward was due to the powerful influence of the Earl of Warwick, but in 1464 the king took a step which greatly offended the earl, and ultimately led to his own downfall. Edward privately married Lady Elizabeth Grey, the widow of a knight who fell on the Lancastrian side in the second battle of St. Albans. The king came accidentally to the house of her father, Sir Richard Woodville, after a hunting party, and was so struck with the beauty of the young widow, that he offered to share his throne with her. The marriage took place at the time when the Earl of Warwick had gone to France, at Edward's request to solicit for him a princess of Savoy, and it was not made known for several months. Warwick's anger on his return was great; but when he saw his place at court filled by the family and friends of the queen, and the highest honours bestowed upon them, his haughty temper carried him away into open rebellion against the king. Many of the nobility, jealous of the new influence at court, supported Warwick, and the king's second brother, the Duke of Clarence, who had married Isabel, the earl's eldest daughter, also joined him. An insurrection was fomented in Yorkshire and Lincoln. The royal troops were defeated at **Edgecote**, near Banbury, when the queen's father, who had been created Earl Rivers, and her brother, were taken prisoners and beheaded. In the following year, Warwick and Clarence were denounced as traitors, and, escaping to France, they met Margaret of Anjou at the court of Louis XI. They at once made common cause with her, and the union was further cemented by a marriage between Prince Edward and Warwick's second daughter Anne.

1469 A.D.

Assisted by Louis, Warwick landed at Dartmouth with a small body of troops, after an absence of five months. So great was his popularity, that in a few days his army amounted to 60,000 men. Edward took ship at Lynn, in Norfolk, and sailed for Flanders. Thus the Earl of Warwick, in eleven days after landing, found himself master of the kingdom. Henry VI. was taken from the Tower, and proclaimed king by the earl, who was now popularly called the 'King-Maker.' A Parliament was called early in the following year, which entrusted the regency of the kingdom to Warwick and Clarence till Prince Edward should come of age; and in default of that prince's issue, Clarence was declared successor to the crown.

Oct. 5, **1470** A.D.

Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury. War with France.

Henry was not long left in enjoyment of the crown. In less than six months, Edward IV. landed at **Ravenspur**, in Yorkshire, with a force of nearly 2,000 men, which his brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy, had given him. The friends of the White Rose soon gathered round him; and marching south, he entered London without opposition, and sent Henry VI. again to the Tower. Warwick took up a position at Barnet, in Middlesex, and there awaited Edward's attack. But during the night before the battle, Clarence deserted his father-in-law, and took with him to his brother's camp a force of 12,000 men. In the **Battle of Barnet**, the Lancastrians were hopelessly beaten; Warwick fell in the thickest of the fight, and scarcely a leading noble of his party escaped with life.

April 14, **1471** A.D.

On the same day, Margaret landed with a small force at Weymouth; but on receiving the news of the defeat at Barnet, she hurried to the borders of Wales, where the Earl of Pembroke had collected an army in her behalf. She was, however, overtaken at **Tewkesbury** by Edward, and her army defeated. Margaret and her son were taken prisoners, and brought to

May 4, **1471** A.D.

Edward's tent, where the chief of the Yorkist party were assembled. The king insultingly asked the young prince how he dared to invade his dominions. The high-spirited youth replied that he came to claim his just inheritance. On this, Edward cowardly struck him in the face with his iron-gloved hand, and he was despatched then and there by the daggers of Gloucester and Clarence. The king returned in triumph to London, while Margaret was thrown into the Tower, where she remained for four years, till ransomed by the King of France. A few days after the battle of Tewkesbury, Henry VI. died in the Tower. The cause of his death is unknown, but it was generally believed that the Duke of Gloucester, the king's brother, killed him with his own hands.

There was nothing now to fear from the Lancastrian party. Every legitimate prince of that house was dead. Edward, then desirous of reconquering the English possessions in France, made an alliance with the Duke of Burgundy for the invasion of that country. Parliament willingly voted him supplies, but as these were considered scarcely sufficient for the undertaking, he invented a novel plan of raising money. Calling rich subjects before him, he demanded presents of money, to which he gave the name of **Benevolences**, or free gifts. When all was ready, the king embarked for France, but finding the Duke of Burgundy unable or unwilling to assist him, he gladly welcomed a messenger from the French king offering terms of peace. At **Pecquigni**, on the Somme, the two monarchs met, and signed a treaty which was not honourable to either party. It was agreed—1. That Louis should pay Edward 75,000 crowns at once, and an annuity of 50,000 crowns. 2. That the dauphin should marry Edward's daughter Elizabeth. 3. That 50,000 crowns should be paid for the ransom of Margaret of Anjou. The last clause was the most honourable part of the treaty. By it Margaret gained her freedom; and having now no child to scheme and fight for, she spent the remaining five years of her life in peace and privacy.

Aug. 29, **1475** A.D.

Duke of Clarence. Death and Character of Edward.

The treaty of Pecquigni caused great dissatisfaction in England, but Edward removed the ill-feeling by making the expenses of the government press lightly upon the pockets of the people. The latter years of his reign were stained by the judicial murder of his brother Clarence. Edward could not easily forget the treacherous part which Clarence had played in conjunction with the 'King-Maker.' The queen, too, disliked him; and his brother, the Duke of Gloucester, had a quarrel against him. With so many powerful foes, he had little chance of escaping the plots laid against his life. Unable to curb his temper, on account of the execution of several of his friends on the most frivolous charges, he complained bitterly of the king's persecuting spirit, and drew upon his own head the royal vengeance. Edward sent him to the Tower; the House of Peers condemned him to death; and common rumour said he was drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine. (1478.)

Louis of France, contrary to the treaty of Pecquigni, married the dauphin to the grand-daughter of the Duke of Burgundy. Edward immediately prepared for war; but in the midst of the preparations his debauchery and wicked excesses brought on an illness of which he died, in the forty-second year of his age, and was buried at Windsor. (1483).

Edward was a brave, active, and energetic prince, but he was also cruel, vain, and given to vicious pleasures. His handsome person and open manners made him very popular. In later years, however, his wicked indulgences disfigured his person, and brought him to an early grave.

The children by his wife Elizabeth, daughter of Richard Woodville, were—Edward, who became king; Richard Duke of York; Elizabeth, who became the wife of Henry VII.; and four other daughters.

Miscellaneous Facts.

This reign is remarkable for the introduction of **Printing** into England. **William Caxton,** an English merchant

residing in Holland, having learnt the art there, set up a printing press at Westminster. The first book printed in England was 'The Game and Playe of Chesse,' 1474; but the first one printed in the English language was called 'The Recuyell of the Histories of Troye.' This work issued from the press at Ghent, under Caxton's supervision. More than sixty works, nearly all in English, were printed at Westminster during the remainder of Caxton's life.

This important art was introduced into Scotland in 1508, and into Ireland in 1551.

Posts were established in this reign between London and Scotland. Horsemen were placed twenty miles apart, and in this way despatches were conveyed at the rate of 100 miles a day. This plan was introduced by the Duke of Gloucester, while conducting a Scottish war, in 1481. England was ravaged by a plague in 1479. St. George's Chapel, Windsor, and St. Catherine's Hall, Cambridge, date from this reign. **Watches** were invented by a German, and **violins** by an Italian.

Soldier and Hand-gun of the period.

EDWARD V.

Born 1470 A.D. Began to Reign April 9, 1483 A.D.
Dethroned June 25, 1483 A.D.

Edward V., the eldest son of the late king, was only in his twelfth year at the time of his father's death. He was then living at Ludlow Castle, under the care of his uncle, Earl Rivers, the patron of Caxton. Rivers set out for London with his young charge, but at Stoney Stratford he was met by Richard Duke of Gloucester, who had been appointed by his brother regent of the kingdom. Supported by the enemies of the Woodville party, Richard immediately took possession of the young king's person, and sent Rivers and his friends as prisoners to Pontefract Castle. The queen-mother, on receiving news of this violence, took refuge in the sanctuary at Westminster, along with all her daughters, and her other son, the Duke of York. Gloucester entered London, paying mock honours to young Edward, and then sent him to the Tower, where he was soon joined by his younger brother. The Council, blinded by the Duke's cunning and hypocrisy, appointed him Protector of the realm. So far successful, his designs upon the crown soon became apparent. The first step was to get rid of all those who might oppose his schemes, and the prisoners in Pontefract therefore were at once put out of the way. Then he began to sound the leaders of the Council. The Duke of Buckingham promised to help him; but as Lord Hastings was friendly to the young princes, Richard determined to take his life. At a Council meeting in the Tower, the Protector suddenly charged that nobleman with conspiring against his life. At a given signal, armed men rushed in, hurried Hastings into

the courtyard, and there beheaded him on a log of wood. Other Councillors, whose fidelity was suspected, were placed in confinement.

The Duke of Gloucester now threw off all disguise. He directed one Dr. Shaw, a popular preacher of the day, to tell the people of London, in a sermon at St. Paul's Cross, that Edward IV. was a married man when he met with the Lady Elizabeth Grey, and therefore all her children were illegitimate. Two days afterwards, the Duke of Buckingham addressed the people at the Guildhall upon the same subject. The citizens kept silence, while a bribed few in the crowd cried out, 'Long live King Richard!' Next day, Buckingham, attended by the Lord Mayor and a hireling rabble, waited upon the Protector, and offered him the crown, in the name of the nation, which, after a little acting and feigned hesitation, he accepted. (June 26, 1483.) Thus ended Edward's short reign of eleven weeks. He was never crowned.

RICHARD III. (Crookback).

Born 1450 A.D. Began to Reign 1483 A.D. Died 1485 A.D.

Murder of the Young Princes.
Plots against Richard.
Battle of Bosworth.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Murder of the Young Princes.

RICHARD, uncle of Edward V., was crowned, along with his wife Anne, daughter of the Earl of Warwick, at Westminster, about a fortnight after his acceptance of the crown. His first care was to strengthen his position by lavishing favours and honours upon all those who had assisted his usurpation. He then made a royal tour through the country, and on reaching York he was again crowned. During his travels, a tragedy took place in the Tower which will for ever stamp this king as one of the vilest of mankind. Wishing to make his throne doubly sure, Richard sent Sir James Tyrrell, his master of the horse, from Warwick to London, with a letter for Brackenbury, the governor of the Tower, charging him to give up the keys of the fortress for one night. The order was obeyed. In the dead of night, Tyrrell, with three other assassins, entered the sleeping-chamber of the innocent princes, smothered them with the bed-clothes, and buried their bodies at the foot of the stairs, deep down under a heap of stones.

In the year 1674, during some repairs, the bones of two youths were discovered under a staircase in the White Tower, and were buried in Westminster Abbey by order of Charles II. as those of Edward V. and his brother the Duke of York.

Plots against Richard. Battle of Bosworth.

A throne obtained by violence and bloodshed is sure to fall sooner or later. Richard's crimes sent many a Yorkist into the Lancastrian ranks. Even his friend Buckingham drew back from his side, and plotted with others to work his ruin. Yorkists and Lancastrians secretly banded together to overthrow the cruel usurper, and they proposed to put an end to their factions by a marriage between the rival houses. The only likely person of the Lancaster party was Henry, Earl of Richmond, a descendant on his mother's side of John of Gaunt, by Catherine Swynford; on his father's side, he was grandson of Sir Owen Tudor, and Catherine, the widow of Henry V. The conspirators proposed that he should marry Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV., and thus unite the rival factions. The plot was secretly communicated to the chief persons of both houses, and everywhere it was received with the greatest joy. The young Earl of Richmond, who was living in exile at the court of Brittany at this time, was supplied with funds to raise an army of invasion, while Buckingham, depending upon the earl's speedy arrival, raised the standard of rebellion in Wales. Heavy rains, however, flooded the Severn, swept away the bridges, and made the river impassable. Buckingham's followers, superstitiously considering the flood as a bad omen, fell away from him, and he himself was obliged to take refuge in the house of an old servant of the family, who basely betrayed him. He was taken to the king at Salisbury, and was instantly executed, November 23, 1483. In the meantime, the Earl of Richmond had set sail from St. Malo with 5,000 men, but having been beaten back by a storm, he arrived on the English coast too late, and found himself forced to return to Brittany.

The failure of this plot strengthened Richard's position. He summoned a Parliament, which acknowledged his authority and his right to the throne; but in order to please the people, he passed some popular laws, especially one

against 'benevolences.' He proposed to marry his own son to the Princess Elizabeth, but the sudden death of that prince upset his plans. He then thought of marrying her himself, and was suspected of getting rid of his wife Anne by poison in order to carry out his intention. He was dissuaded, however, from this unnatural union, and was advised to await the natural course of events.

Richard's proposal of marriage with his niece quickened the movements of the Earl of Richmond. Setting sail from Harfleur with a small army of 3,000 men, he landed at Milford Haven without opposition. (August 7, 1485 A.D.) As he marched through Wales towards Shrewsbury, his force increased to about 6,000. Richard, not knowing the quarter where his enemy might land, had taken up his post at Nottingham. His fears were great; suspicion of the fidelity of his friends disturbed his peace; and his nights were sleepless and restless. At **Bosworth**, in Leicestershire, the two armies met to decide the fate of the kingdom. Only 6,000 men followed Richmond's banner, while Richard had twice the number. But scarcely had the action begun, when Lord Stanley, with 7,000 men, deserted to the side of Richmond, and thus turned the tide of victory in his favour. Richard, seeing at a glance his desperate position, and descrying his rival in the battle, rushed forward to slay him. Cutting down in his fury all who opposed him, he had just reached the earl, when, overpowered by superior numbers, he fell sword in hand. His crown was found in a hawthorn bush, and placed on the head of the victor by Sir William Stanley, amidst the shouts of 'Long live King Henry!' Richard's body was carelessly thrown, like a pack, upon a horse, taken to Leicester, and buried in the church of the Grey Friars.

The battle of Bosworth was the last of the wars of the Roses, and on that field perished the last of the Plantagenet line of kings. Aug. 2, **1485** A.D.

The character of Richard III. has been variously given. He possessed, without doubt, energy, courage, and ability; but his ambition was unbounded, and his craft and cruelty beyond description. Some say that he was very much

disfigured in person, small in stature, harsh featured, and hunchbacked; others say that his only defect was in having one shoulder a little higher than the other. He left no children.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In this reign the statutes of Parliament were first drawn up in English, and embodied in a *printed* form. **British Consuls** abroad were appointed for the first time. The sweating sickness first made its appearance in England. (1484 A.D.) In the wars of the Roses, which lasted thirty years, 100,000 Englishmen are said to have been killed, and many villages and churches destroyed.

Social Condition of the People in the LANCASTRIAN AND YORKIST PERIOD.

Results of the Wars of the Roses. Food. Dress. Dwellings. Amusements. National Industry. Literature.

Results of the Wars of the Roses.—This quarrel, extending over a period of thirty years, was most destructive to the nobility. A great number of the aristocracy died on the field of battle; many others perished by assassination or the executioner, and some were banished. The extent of this destruction is shown from the following fact. 'In the year 1451, Henry VI. summoned fifty-three temporal lords to Parliament. The temporal lords summoned by Henry VII. to the Parliament of 1485 were only twenty-nine, and of these twenty-nine several had recently been raised to the peerage.' The consequence of this loss was the great increase of the royal power. In the times of the Plantagenets the power of the king was kept in check by a powerful nobility. There was always at command a noble like Robert FitzWalter, Simon de Montfort, or the Earl of Warwick, to head a confederacy against a monarch who overstepped the bounds of his authority. But this state of things ended with the civil war of the rival houses. The victor of Bosworth, in consequence, was the head of a line of sovereigns far more despotic than any before them. Nevertheless, the wars which destroyed the old English nobility were favourable to the growth of the freedom and power of the common people. Feudalism received a shock from which it never recovered; and the system of villeinage or slavery, which had been decaying ever since the reign of Henry II., was entirely overthrown. The Church had always used her influence under the Plantagenets in favour

of the peasantry. The clergy, drawn from the ranks of the people, had the greatest sympathy for them; and when they attended the death-bed of a slaveholder, they did not forget to urge him to set free his oppressed fellow-creatures. Thus the good work of freedom went on till villeinage perished in the civil wars. A new order of things began with the close of this period. Modern history, with its triumphs of civilisation, dates from the battle of Bosworth, and the period of the Middle Ages comes to an end. The new dynasty began its reign indeed with authority hitherto unequalled, but at the same time the spirit of freedom infused new life into the people, and gave birth to a power which eventually proved a stronger check upon the royal authority than that of the ancient nobility. In a century and a half from this time, the Commons were more than a match for the king.

Food.—The upper classes increased their number of meals from two to four: breakfast at seven, dinner at ten, supper at four, and livery (a repast taken in bed) between eight and nine. The chief meal was dinner, which generally lasted three hours. Then the table in the great hall groaned under the weight of dishes of flesh, fish, and fowl. The lord sat at the head of the table, on a daïs, and below him were his friends and retainers, all placed according to their rank. The salt-cellar was the boundary line between servants and guests. Food was eaten with the fingers, in primitive fashion, and numerous servants handed round in vessels of wood, pewter, or horn, plenty of wine, beer, and ale. The long hours of dinner were enlivened with the music of some strolling minstrel, and the tricks of jugglers and buffoons.

Hospitality was as splendid as in the former period. The custom of keeping armed retainers rendered an open table necessary. The 'King-Maker,' for instance, maintained in his various castles 30,000 men, and therefore we need not be surprised when we read of the magnitude of the feasts of those days. When the same nobleman's brother was made Archbishop of York, his feast consisted of 104 oxen, 6 wild bulls, 1,000 sheep, 304 calves, 2,000 pigs,

500 stags, 204 kids, and 22,512 fowls and birds. Besides these, there was abundance of fish, pastry, &c.; and of drinks, there were used 300 tuns of ale, and 100 tuns of wine. In the house of the Earl of Warwick, in London, six oxen were consumed by his retainers every morning for breakfast.

The labouring classes breakfasted at eight, dined at noon, and supped at six. They were well fed, and never drank water, except as a penance. During the civil war, the peasantry in some parts suffered much from scarcity of food.

Dress.—The extravagant style of dress introduced in the reign of Richard II. kept its ground during the short reigns of Henry IV. and Henry V. Fashion made great changes under Henry VI. Males cropped their hair short, and closely shaved their face. They wore hoods with long tippets, reaching to the ground; high caps, with single feathers behind; a jacket or doublet, with high-padded shoulders, and large sleeves shaped like a bagpipe; and shoes with long pointed toes, as before. In the time of Edward IV., the practice of slitting the doublet at the elbow, so as to show the shirt, came into fashion, and became very general in the following century. The hair was now worn in thick masses, even reaching to the eyes, and the long-pointed shoe gave place to broad toes, sometimes more than six inches wide; but this style of shoe did not long continue in use.

The most remarkable change in the dress of ladies was the style of headdress. At the beginning of the period, we find it in the shape of a turban, or a heart, or two horns, but these fashions were succeeded by a tall steeple cap, as high as a chimney pot, from which hung a piece of fine lawn reaching to the ground. The peasantry of Normandy still wear a headdress resembling this.[1] They also wore richly-embroidered gowns, trimmed with fur or velvet, with short waists and long trains.

[1] The high steeple cap disappeared about the close of the reign of Edward IV.

The display in dress of the upper classes was copied by those below them to such an extent that laws were passed under Edward IV. forbidding working people to buy articles of clothing above a certain value, and limiting the fashion of their dress. Labourers' wives were forbidden to wear 'a girdle garnished with silver,' or to buy 'cloth above the price of 2*s*. the broad yard.' Such laws show that the working classes were increasing in wealth. Similar enactments were also made to regulate the style, quality, and colour of dress of all persons below the rank of lord.

Dwellings.—The buildings erected in this period were not so military-looking as before, and they had about them a greater air of comfort. The larger dwellings were castellated mansions built in the quadrangular form, enclosing an open space, called the court, into which the chief apartments looked. Smaller abodes were called manor houses, and they were also quadrangular, and surrounded, like the castellated mansion, with a moat. Farm-houses and cottages were still rude structures of wattles and clay. Cottages generally consisted of a single room. Chimneys were unknown in such dwellings till the time of Elizabeth. Town houses were built of wood; and in order to keep the beams and posts from rotting with damp, the upper stories jutted out over the lower, and in narrow streets the top stories of opposite houses reached within a few feet of each other. This style of house may still be seen in York and Chester. Wood was the chief material used in building, but stone was partially used for high-class dwellings, and bricks, introduced from Flanders, began to be much employed.

The gentry still lacked comfortable apartments. Furniture was poor and scanty. Beds were rare; and a gentleman with three or four was considered to be excellently provided; few had more than two. The walls were commonly bare, without wainscôt or even plaster; but the houses of the great were furnished with hangings or tapestry, called Arras, from the place of its manufacture. Some of the rooms were supplied with chimneys; and the chimney-piece of the chief chamber was usually ornamented with a display of shields and devices. Glazed windows in domestic

buildings were only found in the houses of the great, and were very dear. They were considered as moveable furniture.

Amusements.—The sports of the gentry continued the same as before, with one or two exceptions. The tournament was rapidly declining into idle parade, and a mere display of horsemanship. The out-door amusements of the poor were little altered. Wrestling, bowling, and games of ball were particularly popular. The sports of children were much the same as at present. Edward IV. renewed the law for the encouragement of archery; and as this practice was much neglected, the magistrates were ordered to prevent the games of dice, cards, bowls, quoits, tennis, &c. Playing-cards came into use in this period.

Mummings were frequent at the court; and persons of all ranks took part in these amusements, in which all kinds of animals were sometimes represented. The grand processions or pageants, with which the citizens of London occasionally welcomed the king, were chiefly mummings on a large scale.

Within doors, secular and religious plays were the chief amusements. The former were only stories made up for the occasion by travelling buffoons, and acted in the kitchens of inns or the corners of streets. The religious plays were called **Mysteries,** or **Miracle** Plays, and, for the most part, were representations of Scripture history, arranged and acted by the clergy. They were first performed in churches, and were intended to teach the people sacred history. In 1409, a performance of this kind in London occupied eight days, and was attended by most of the nobility and gentry. The stage, at first, consisted of three platforms, of different heights. The actors took their place on the lowest, whilst the other two were occupied by representations of saints, angels, and the Supreme Being. In time these profane representations were discontinued. About the time of Henry VI., **Moral** Plays, or **Allegories,** came into use. There were personations of moral qualities, as Truth, Justice, Mercy, &c.,

which were acted by laymen. In the Tudor period, Moral Plays gave way to the regular English drama.

National Industry.—Before the commencement of the civil war, the commerce of England was rapidly increasing. **Wool** was still the chief staple of trade, and was exported in the raw state to Flanders, and imported thence as cloth. Trade was also carried on with Spain, Portugal, Genoa, Florence, and Venice. Ships went to Iceland from Bristol and Scarborough for codfish. We learn something of the importance and growth of commerce from the fact that several traders rose to high rank and power. The De la Poles, to which family the Duke of Suffolk belonged, were merchants of Hull. The Cannings of Bristol and Whittington of London were men of mark in their day. The various crafts were called 'mysteries;' and most of them were formed into guilds or corporations, for mutual encouragement and protection. Silk-weaving was carried on by women in London, but it was not very flourishing.

The wars of the Roses not only injured for a time the foreign trade, but also interfered with the cultivation of the soil. Labourers became scarce, and the villeins who were set free betook themselves to handicrafts and manufactures. These facts, along with the increasing demand for wool, caused a great deal of arable land to be turned into pasture.

The scarcity of labourers led the Parliament, in 1445, to fix the rate of wages for several classes by law. A common husbandman was not to receive more per year than 15*s.*, with meat and drink, and 40*d.* for clothing; most labourers were to receive 2*d.* a day with, or $3\frac{1}{2}d.$ without, diet in summer, and $\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day less in winter. A free mason and master carpenter were not to receive more than 4*d.* a day with, or $5\frac{1}{2}d.$ without, diet in summer, and 1*d.* less in winter. Those who refused to agree to these terms were liable to be sent to prison.

The population at the close of the fifteenth century was about 3,000,000.

Literature, &c.—On account of the wars in France and at home, this period is very barren of any great names in

literature. The love of knowledge, however, was very deep in many of the more select order of minds, and their desire for its advancement is shown by the establishment of several colleges, both at Oxford and Cambridge. The invention of printing and its introduction into England worked a complete change in the art of book-making. Manuscripts gave way to printed volumes. The type used at first in England was Old English; and the spelling of words was left to the taste of the author. The language of the time was Middle English.

The chief authors of the period (1399–1485) were:—

THOMAS WALSINGHAM, a monk of St. Albans: wrote in Latin a history of England from 1273 to 1422.

JOHN LYDGATE (1375–1461), a monk of Bury St. Edmund's: wrote about 250 poems: of which the chief were 'The Siege of Troy,' 'The Fall of Princes,' and 'The History of Thebes.'

SIR JOHN FORTESCUE (1395–1485), Chief Justice: wrote a book on the laws of England, and other works in Latin.

WILLIAM CAXTON (1410–1491), first English printer: wrote and printed about sixty works.

JAMES I. King of Scotland; a prisoner for nineteen years in England, became acquainted with the writings of Chaucer; author of a poem called 'The King's Quhair' (or Book).

LEADING DATES OF THE PERIOD (1399–1485).

GENERAL EVENTS.

Glendower's Revolt	1400	A.D.	HENRY IV.
William Sawtre burnt for Heresy	1401	,,	,,
Execution of Scrope, Archbishop of York	1405	,,	,,
London lighted for the first time with Lanterns	1415	,,	HENRY V.
Release of Prince James of Scotland	1423	,,	HENRY VI.
Execution of Joan of Arc	1431	,,	,,
Printing in Wooden Blocks commenced by Coster	1431	,,	,,
Metal Types used by Guttenburg	1444	,,	,,
First Book Printed in England	1474	,,	EDWARD IV.

WARS, BATTLES, AND TREATIES.

	A.D.	
Battle of Nesbit Moor	1402	Henry IV.
,, Homildon Hill	1402	,,
,, Shrewsbury	1403	,,
,, Agincourt	1415	Henry V.
Siege of Rouen	1419	,,
Treaty of Troyes	1420	,,
Battle of Crevant	1423	Henry VI.
,, Verneuil	1424	,,
,, Rouvrai, or Battle of Herrings	1429	,,
Siege of Orleans raised by Joan of Arc	1429	,,
Jack Cade's Rebellion	1450	,,
The English Driven out of France	1451	,,
Treaty of Pecquigni	1475	Edward IV.

WARS OF THE ROSES. 1455 A.D. TO 1485 A.D.

Twelve Battles.

Kings.	*Places.*	*Dates.* A.D.	*Victors.*
HENRY VI.	St. Albans (first)	May 22, 1455	York.
	Bloreheath	Sept. 23, 1459	,,
	Northampton	July 10, 1460	,,
	Wakefield	Dec. 31, 1460	Lancaster.
	Mortimer's Cross	Feb. 2, 1461	York.
	St. Albans (second)	Feb. 17, 1461	Lancaster.
EDWARD IV.	Towton	Mar. 29, 1461	York.
	Hedgeley Moor	April 25, 1464	,,
	Hexham	May 15, 1464	,,
	Barnet	April 14, 1471	,,
	Tewkesbury	May 4, 1471	,,
RICHARD III.	Bosworth	Aug. 22, 1485	Lancaster.

ENGLISH POSSESSIONS
in
FRANCE
IN THE 14TH & 15TH CENTURIES
ENGLAND
LONDON
Canterbury
Dover
Southampton
Isl of Wight
English Channel
Strait of Dover
Calais
Guines
Guinegate
Agincourt 1415
Creci
Ponthieu
Abbeville
Arras
St Valery en Caux
Cherbourg
Barfleur
Alderney
Amiens
St Quentin
Cambrai
Mons
Namur
Brussels
Liege
Ghent
Bruges
Damme
Sluys
Flanders
Artois
Hainault
Luxemburg
Brabant
R. Maas
Navarre
Bearn
Bigorre
Comminge
Foix
Pyrenees Mts
Gulf of Lyon
French Territory Green 1
English Possessions as settled by the Treaty of Bretigni 1360 2
Do at accession of Henry 6th 1422 3
Do in 1453 4

GENEALOGICAL TABLE

Connecting the Plantagenets with the Tudors.

EDWARD III.

JOHN OF GHENT, Duke of Lancaster (fourth son), had by Catherine Swynford (his mistress)—

JOHN BEAUFORT, Earl of Somerset: died 1410 A.D.

JOHN Duke of Somerset: died 1444.

MARGARET BEAUFORT, *m.* Edmund Earl of Richmond, son of Catherine, widow of Henry V., and Owen Tudor.

HENRY VII.

ENGLISH POSSESSIONS
IN
FRANCE
IN THE 14TH & 15TH CENTURIES
LONDON
Canterbury
Dover
Southampton
Isle of Wight
Strait of Dover
English Channel
Calais
Boulogne
Ghent
Bruges
Flanders
Brussels
Liege
Artois
Arras
Hesdin
Abbeville
Amiens
St Quentin
Luxemburg
Alderney
Guernsey
Jersey
Cherbourg
Barfleur
Bayeux
Caen
Falaise
Rouen
Harfleur
Dieppe
Rheims
NORMANDY
PARIS
Meaux
Troyes
Nancy
Chalons
Mantes
Evreux
Verneuil
Tenchebrai
Mortain
St Brieuc
Brest
BRITTANY
Maine
Orleanais
Rennes
Laval
Chartres
Orleans
Blois
Amboise
Tours
Loches
Chinon
Bourges
Nevers
Auxerre
Dijon
Franche Comte
Nantes
Anjou
Poitou
Poitiers
Chatillon
Bourbon
Lyons
R. Rhone
Limousin
Auvergne
Perigord
Bordeaux
Bay of Biscay
GUIENNE
Dauphine
Rouergue
Agenois
Buch
Provence
Avignon
Marseilles
Bayonne
Armagnac
Toulouse
Beam
Navarre
Gulf of Lyon
Pyrenees Mts
French Territory Green
English Possessions as settled
by the Treaty of Bretigny 1360
2
Do at accession of Henry 6th 1422
3
Do in 1453
4

TUDOR PERIOD.

From 1485 A.D. to 1603 A.D. 118 Years.

HENRY VII. . . .	began to Reign	1485	A.D.
HENRY VIII. (Son) . .	„ „	1509	„
EDWARD VI. (Son) .	„ „	1547	„
MARY (Half-sister) . .	„ „	1553	„
ELIZABETH (Half-sister) .	„ „	1558	„

HENRY VII.

Born 1456 A.D. Began to Reign 1485 A.D. Died 1509 A.D.

Henry's Accession and Title.
Lambert Simnel's Insurrection.
War in France.
Perkin Warbeck's Insurrection.
Royal Marriages.
Henry's Avarice.
Death and Character.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Henry's Accession and Title to the Crown.

MODERN HISTORY begins with the accession of Henry VII. The spread of knowledge through the invention of printing caused an astonishing progress in manners, literature, and arts; and the peace which followed the civil war gave a favourable opportunity for the first growth of those political, social, and religious ideas which have raised England to the foremost place amongst the nations of the earth.

On the field of Bosworth Henry VII. was hailed as king by all his friends. He was now in his thirtieth year. He had no real title to the crown, for his descent from John of Gaunt, through his mother Margaret, daughter of John Beaufort, the Duke of Somerset, was illegitimate. It is true that John of Gaunt's children by Catherine Swynford were legitimatised by Act of Parliament, in the reign of Richard II., but with the provision that they should be excluded from the throne. The lawful heir to the crown by descent was Edward Earl of Warwick, son of George Duke of Clarence, then a boy of fifteen years

of age, living at Sheriff-Hutton, in Yorkshire. Henry immediately got possession of his young rival's person, and sent him to the Tower. He intended to claim the crown by right of conquest, but friends and foes objected to that course. His third claim was based upon his proposed marriage with Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV., and, much as he disliked the idea, it was the only claim of real value, and one calculated to unite the two factions of York and Lancaster. In consideration of his intended marriage, Parliament agreed that the crown of England should rest and abide with him and his heirs; but his coronation took place at Westminster some time before the marriage. (October 30, 1485.) He immediately chose for his advisers two clergymen, named John Morton and Richard Fox, who had shared his dangers. Fox was made Bishop of Exeter, and Morton became Archbishop of Canterbury. Early in 1486 Henry married Elizabeth. The marriage was received with greater joy than the king's first entry into the City, or his coronation. Disquieted at this show of Yorkist feeling, Henry in the same year obtained from Pope Innocent VIII. a confirmation of his title to the crown.

Lambert Simnel's Insurrection.

Henry could not conceal his dislike to the Yorkists. The general favour with which they were regarded made him very jealous. He consequently treated them with coldness and indifference, and thus re-kindled the feelings of ill-will and hatred between the old factions of the White and Red Roses. While the king was on a tour in Yorkshire, Lord Lovel and other Yorkist noblemen suddenly raised an insurrection in the neighbourhood of Ripon. The rising, however, failed; and Lovel escaped to Flanders to Margaret, Dowager-duchess of Burgundy, the sister of Edward IV., where, throughout this reign, help and an asylum were found for all the friends of the House of York. The elder Stafford, who had joined Lovel's insurrection, was taken and executed.

In the same year, a formidable attempt was made to overthrow the king's government. It has already been stated that the heir of the house of York, the young Earl of Warwick, was a prisoner in the Tower. An Oxford priest, named Simon, formed the design of getting some one to personate this nobleman, and thus present a rallying point for the enemies of the Lancastrians. In the same city a ready tool was found in **Lambert Simnel**, a baker's son, fifteen years of age. The priest, after well drilling the youth, took him to Dublin, and introduced him as the young Earl of Warwick just escaped from the Tower. As Richard Duke of York and his son George Duke of Clarence had been lieutenants of Ireland, the Yorkists were very popular there, and the story of the escape of the heir of that family was received with the greatest joy. The deputy of the island, the Earl of Kildare, received Simnel with all respect, and the people in Dublin, with one consent, proclaimed him as Edward VI. Henry, alarmed at the movement, paraded the real Earl of Warwick through the streets of London, and, by the advice of his peers and prelates, proclaimed a general pardon for all past offences. The widow of Edward IV., however, was dispossessed of her lands, and sent for safe custody to the nunnery of Bermondsey. In England these measures took effect; but in Ireland Simnel's imposture was daily gathering strength. John Earl of Lincoln, son of the Duke of Suffolk and Elizabeth, eldest sister of Edward IV., fled to his aunt, the Duchess of Burgundy, and persuaded her to help the plot in Ireland. She sent 2,000 mercenaries to Dublin along with him and Lovel; and there it was decided to invade England. Henry was with his army at Kenilworth Castle, when news reached him that his enemies had landed at Furness, Lancashire, and were marching into the heart of the kingdom. At **Stoke**, near Newark, the royal forces intercepted the rebels. The battle was fought with the greatest obstinacy and valour on both sides, but at last the victory, at one time doubtful, fell to Henry. Earl Lincoln and 4,000 of his followers

May 2, **1487** A.D.

June 16, **1487** A.D.

perished on the field. Lovel escaped, but was never more heard of. Simnel and his tutor were taken prisoners. The priest was closely confined in prison; but Simnel, being too contemptible for the royal anger, was made a scullion in the king's kitchen, and afterwards advanced to the post of falconer.

This insurrection reminded Henry of the necessity of conciliating the Yorkists. The queen, though married two years, had not yet been crowned, much to the disappointment of the people. Her coronation now took place with great pomp and magnificence, and on all public occasions afterwards she occupied a prominent place.

War with France.

Henry's cautious and parsimonious character was favourable for the maintenance of peace, but events were taking place in France which demanded his interference, in spite of his dislike of war. Brittany was the only great fief of France which retained its independence. Charles VIII., the French king, being desirous of adding this duchy to the crown, took advantage of some discontent in the province, and invaded it. (1488.) The aged duke, who had sheltered Henry VII. in his exile, appealed to England for help. A small force of 6,000 men was sent across, but it proved of little use. Just at that time the Duke of Brittany died, leaving the duchy to his daughter Anne, a girl twelve years old. This young heiress had been betrothed to Maximilian King of the Romans, with the approval of Henry; but the French monarch upset the arrangement. Surrounding the town of Rennes, where the duchess resided, with a large army, Charles said that she must either be his wife or his prisoner. She chose the former fate; and thus Brittany was finally united to the French crown. (1491 A.D.)

Henry was very much annoyed at this marriage, and threatened war with Charles. The English people strongly advocated the invasion of France, and were loud in their outcries against the French king's conduct; but Henry preferred to fill his coffers with the money voted by Parliament

rather than to spend it in arms. Public opinion at last prevailed, and the king, after illegally levying a *benevolence*, set out for France with a large army, as if bent upon the conquest of that country. He pretended to besiege Boulogne; but the French knew that money would satisfy his wounded pride and anger. A treaty of peace was immediately drawn up at **Estaples**, by which it was agreed that Henry should receive 149,000*l.*, on condition of withdrawing his forces. The peace gave great dissatisfaction in England. The people were loud in their complaints that the king had exacted money from them merely for the sake of getting more from his enemies.

1492 A.D.

Perkin Warbeck's Insurrection.

While the dispute was going on with France, another impostor appeared on the scene to disquiet Henry's reign. It had long been noised abroad that Richard Duke of York, the brother of Edward V., had escaped from the Tower. The enemies of the king, taking advantage of this rumour, brought forward a youth named **Perkin Warbeck**, son of a merchant of Tournay, as the real Duke of York. He landed at Cork, where he was enthusiastically received as Richard Plantagenet. There was then open war between England and France, and Charles VIII. invited the impostor to Paris, for the purpose of frightening his adversary. After the peace of Estaples, Warbeck found an asylum with Margaret of Burgundy, who, professing to believe that he was her nephew, called him the *White Rose of England*, and treated him as a prince. A Yorkish plot was at once set on foot in England. For nearly three years an active correspondence went on between the Yorkist leaders and the court of Burgundy. The belief gained ground that the Duke of York was really alive, and Henry became seriously alarmed. Numerous spies in England and Flanders kept him well informed of the extent of the conspiracy, and at first he wisely tried to defeat it by gentle means. Sir Robert Clifford, one of the conspirators, was persuaded to abandon the plot, and pardon was freely offered to those

who would follow his example. By means of Clifford, several of Warbeck's supporters in England were discovered, and executed for high treason. Amongst these was Sir William Stanley, the lord chamberlain, who had saved the king's life at Bosworth. He had said in confidence to Clifford that, if he were sure the young man in Flanders was really the son of King Edward, he never would bear arms against him.

The execution of Stanley and others put such a check upon the conspiracy, that Perkin was obliged to do something in order to keep up his party. An attempt to land in Kent failed; his followers were beaten back with loss, and many were captured and executed. (1495 A.D.) Warbeck then made for Ireland, and attempted to take Waterford; but the deputy of the island, Sir Edward Poynings, had so improved the government that he found little support there, and was compelled to withdraw to Flanders. Under this deputy, a law was made and called by his name, **Poyning's Law**, which enacted that no Bill could be introduced into the Irish Parliament unless it had previously received the approval of the English Council. This statute greatly strengthened Henry's power in Ireland.

Warbeck was obliged to leave Flanders, because Henry, in revenge, had removed the English cloth-market from Antwerp to Calais, and had banished the Flemish merchants from England. To put an end to this interruption of trade, Margaret of Burgundy was compelled to part with her protégé. (1496 A.D.) Once more he visited Cork; but failing to excite the people in his favour, he set sail for Scotland, where James IV. received him with all respect. The Scottish king gave him in marriage a lady of royal blood, Catherine Gordon, daughter of the Earl of Huntley, and led an expedition in his behalf into the northern counties of England. No Englishman, however, welcomed the invader: and after ravaging the country, the Scots withdrew. This aggression gave Henry an excuse for demanding from his subjects a supply of money. The Parliament voted a grant; but the men of Cornwall refused to pay their share, as an unne-

1496 A.D.

cessary and unjust demand. They therefore took up arms, and marched towards London. Lord Audley, and others of lower rank, joined them on the way, but at Blackheath they were suddenly attacked in front and rear by the royal forces, and thoroughly discomfited. Their leaders were taken and executed.

In the meantime the Scots made another inroad into the northern counties, but an English force compelled them to withdraw and sue for peace. Warbeck, again losing an asylum, went to Ireland, and thence to Cornwall. Landing at Whitsand Bay, near Penzance, he marched to Bodmin, where 3,000 men gathered round his banner, and hailed him as King Richard IV. At the head of 6,000 men, he laid siege to Exeter; but on the approach of the royal troops, he withdrew to Taunton. Despairing of success, he took refuge in the sanctuary of Beaulieu, Hampshire, whilst his followers threw themselves upon the king's mercy. A few were hanged, others fined, and the rest sent home. Warbeck surrendered on a promise of life, and was carried in mock triumph to London, where a confession of the imposture was published, to satisfy the people. Warbeck was kept in honourable confinement, and his wife was made an attendant upon the queen. On attempting to escape from England, he was put into the stocks, and afterwards sent to the Tower. There he came in contact with the son of the Duke of Clarence. The two prisoners soon became friends, and plotted to escape from captivity. Their plan being discovered, Warbeck was hanged at Tyburn, and the Earl of Warwick, the last heir of the Plantagenets, after suffering an unjust imprisonment of fifteen years, was beheaded on Tower Hill. This last act is a lasting blot on the character of Henry VII. A third imposture, set on foot just before, made him anxious to get rid of the earl. A priest in Kent had induced a shoemaker's son to call himself the Earl of Warwick. The puppet was executed, and the priest imprisoned for life. This plot no doubt had some influence in determining the fate of the unfortunate heir of the Plantagenets.

Nov. 28, **1499** A.D.

Royal Marriages. Henry's Avarice. Death and Character.

Insurrections having come to an end, Henry devoted his attention to the marriage of his children and amassing money. Three marriages took place, which produced important consequences. The first was that of Prince Arthur, eldest son of the king, to Catherine of Arragon, November 1501. In six months the prince died, at the age of fifteen. Henry, anxious to keep the Spanish alliance, and unwilling to lose Catherine's dowry of 200,000 ducats, betrothed the princess, by the Pope's permission, to his second son, Henry, then a boy eleven years of age. This union gave rise to an important dispute in the next reign.

In the following year, the king's eldest daughter, Margaret, married James IV. of Scotland. This match ultimately led to the union of the crowns of England and Scotland. In the midst of all these arrangements, Henry's queen died, much regretted by the nation.

1503 A.D.

Henry's avarice seems to have increased with peace and prosperity. The love of money grew with his age, and he neglected no opportunity of imposing heavy fines upon his subjects for breaches of the law. His advisers in this matter were two lawyers, Empson and Dudley, whom he made barons of the Exchequer. Many laws had fallen into disuse, but spies, scattered throughout the country, reported the names of all persons who neglected to observe them, and these lawyers then pitilessly exacted the fines from men of all ranks and conditions. On one occasion, the Earl of Oxford entertained the king at his castle, and assembled a large number of retainers in livery to do him honour. The king, on his departure, reminded the earl of a law recently made against keeping retainers, and the hospitable nobleman was fined 10,000*l.* By these exactions, Henry is said to have amassed 1,800,000*l.*—a fabulous sum for those days.

Henry died of consumption at his favourite palace of

Shene, near Richmond, and was buried in the beautiful chapel which he had built in Westminster Abbey. During his illness, the memory of his deeds of wrong troubled his peace of mind, and he ordered in his will that compensation should be made to those whom he had injured. He was a man of ability and courage; but avarice, on the whole, was his ruling passion. His reign was favourable to the growth of English interests, both at home and abroad. Many useful laws were passed; the power of the nobility was restrained; order was preserved in the State; and the foundation of our commerce was laid.

April 25, 1509 A.D.

The children of Henry by his wife Elizabeth of York were: Arthur, who married Catherine of Arragon, and died 1502 A.D.; Henry, who became king; Margaret, married James IV. of Scotland; and Mary, married (1) Louis XII. of France, and (2) Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

Miscellaneous Facts.

An important law was passed in this reign, called the **Statute of Fines**, which enabled the nobility to dispose of their estates without paying the usual fines. By this law many estates were bought by rich commoners; and thus a new class of gentry took its rise. The power of the nobility was also restrained by the law for the abolition of *maintenance*. By 'maintenance' is understood the right of the nobility to keep in their pay any number of men. Before this statute was passed, some of the nobles kept thousands of armed men in their service.

The **Court of the Star Chamber** was re-modelled by Parliament in 1486. It was originally the king's ordinary council, and received the name of 'Star Chamber' from the decorations of the room in the palace where it was held. It took cognisance of offences by maintenance, riot, unlawful assemblies, perjury, forgery, and offences which could not well be brought under the law. In this court, trials were conducted without juries, and there was no appeal from its decisions. It had not the power of life and

death, but could fine men to their ruin. In succeeding reigns, it became an instrument of injustice and tyranny.

Henry's reign is remarkable for the success of maritime discovery. **Christopher Columbus**, a Genoese, discovered the Bahama Islands in 1492; and it was merely by accident that Henry was deprived of the opportunity of taking part in this expedition. Columbus had sent his brother Bartholomew to England in 1489, with maps and charts, for the purpose of obtaining the king's help for his intended voyage. He was favourably received, but on his return to invite his brother to the English court, he was taken

Costume of the Nobility—time of Henry VII.

by pirates. Columbus in the meantime had secured the aid of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, and with a small Spanish fleet set out on a great voyage of discovery. Henry afterwards patronised **Sebastian Cabot**, a Venetian, settled in Bristol, who was the first to explore the mainland of North America from Newfoundland to Florida. (1497 A.D.) In the same year, a Portuguese, named **Vasco de Gama**, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and thus

opened out a new way to the East Indies. **Americus Vespuccius**, a native of Florence, explored the coasts of South America, and gave his name to the New World.

Henry caused a war-ship of two decks to be built, which carried 1,000 tons, cost 14,000*l.*, and was called the *Great Harry*. He also instituted a body-guard of fifty men, known as Yeomen of the Guard. From their duty of attending the *buffet* or royal sideboard, they were called *buffetiers*, since corrupted into *beef-eaters*. To this reign we owe the issue of shilling pieces, and the founding of Jesus College and Christ's College, Cambridge, and Brasenose, Oxford.

HENRY VIII.

Born 1491 A.D. Began to Reign 1509 A.D. Died 1547 A.D.

Henry's Accession.
First War with France and Scotland.
Cardinal Wolsey.
Field of the Cloth of Gold.
Second War with France and Scotland.
The Reformation.
Divorce of Queen Catherine.
Wolsey's Fall.
Overthrow of the Papal Power in England.
Suppression of the Monasteries.
Anne Boleyn.
Jane Seymour.
Translation of the Bible.
The Bloody Statute.
Anne of Cleves.
Catherine Howard.
Catherine Parr.
Third War with France and Scotland.
Execution of the Earl of Surrey.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Henry's Accession. First War with France and Scotland.

HENRY VIII. was born at Greenwich, and was eighteen years old when he came to the throne. Uniting in his person the rival claims of the houses of York and Lancaster, the nation hailed his accession with pleasure, and looked forward to a reign of peace and good government. The young king's handsome person, jovial manners, cheerful disposition, and many accomplishments, made him very popular; and he had, besides, in the hoards of his father, the means wherewith to win popular favour. Soon after his accession, he married Catherine, his brother's widow. The cares of government sat lightly upon him, so that the first two years of his reign were devoted to pleasure rather than business. Tilts, tournaments, dances, pageants, and all kinds of pleasures were indulged in, one

after the other, till little was left of the great treasures which Henry VII. had been so careful to collect. The affairs of government were left in the hands of the king's chief ministers, the Earl of Surrey, afterwards made Duke of Norfolk, and Fox, Bishop of Winchester. One of the first acts of the reign was the imprisonment of Empson and Dudley, and the numerous informers whom they had maintained throughout the land. The people clamoured for the punishment of the two chief agents of the last king's tyranny, and to gratify the popular cry, a trumped-up charge of treason was brought against them, and they were executed on Tower Hill.

After two or three years' peace, Henry was persuaded by his father-in-law Ferdinand to join in a war against France. Pope Julius II., Ferdinand of Spain, and Maximilian of Germany, had entered into a league, in 1508, called the **League of Cambray,** to recover some Church lands from the Venetians. Succeeding in this, the same powers formed another league, which the Venetians joined, for the purpose of driving the French out of Italy. Henry was invited to join them, and at the same time to demand from Louis XII. of France the surrender of the province of Guienne. Full of youthful ardour, and thirsting for military glory, Henry declared war against Louis. An army under the Marquis of Dorset was sent to Spain to invade the south of France, but Ferdinand used it to conquer Navarre for himself. Dorset, finding himself duped, returned to England with his forces much reduced.

1512 A.D.

In the following year, Henry, having received a liberal grant of money, set sail for Calais at the head of 25,000 men. There he was joined by Maximilian, who consented to serve under the English king as one of his captains. The small town of Terouenne, in Picardy, was besieged for two months, during which time a battle disgraceful to the French arms took place. A body of French cavalry, to the number of 10,000, marching to relieve Terouenne, was attacked by a few hundred English and German horse **at Guinegate.** The French were put to the rout, and,

because they used their spurs more than their swords, the action was called the **Battle of Spurs.** After the surrender of Terouenne, Tournay was taken, and, as winter was coming on, Henry returned with most of his army in triumph to England. **1513** A.D.

Whilst these things were taking place in France, James IV. of Scotland, as an ally of the French, invaded England. On **Flodden Field,** at the foot of the Cheviots, an English army under Earl Surrey inflicted upon the Scots a terrible defeat. James IV. and the flower of the Scotch nobility were slain. Surrey was rewarded for this brilliant victory with the title of Duke of Norfolk. **1513** A.D.

In the following year, Henry, deserted by his allies, made peace with France. Louis agreed that the English should keep Tournay, that he would pay Henry 1,000,000 crowns, and that he would marry Mary, Henry's sister. Three months after the marriage, Louis died; and his young widow afterwards became the wife of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

Cardinal Wolsey. Field of the Cloth of Gold.

One of Henry's chief advisers at this time was **Thomas Wolsey,** Dean of Lincoln. He is said to have been a butcher's son, and was born at Ipswich, 1471 A.D. But whatever his origin was, his talents were of a very high order. He was educated at Magdalene College, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor of Arts degree at the age of fourteen, and was on this account called the *Boy Bachelor.* After discharging the duties of tutor to the sons of the Marquis of Dorset, he was appointed by that nobleman to the rectory of Lymington, Hampshire. He next received the chaplaincy of Calais. His talents attracted the attention of Henry VII., who rewarded him for secret services by advancing him to the deanery of Lincoln, and the post of king's almoner. Fox, Bishop of Winchester, introduced him to the court of Henry VIII., where his efforts to please soon won the royal favour. Wolsey's preferment was now rapid. At first the companion of the king's pleasures, he was next made a member

of his council, and in a short time became his sole minister. Henry, delighted with a counsellor who seemed to second all his whims and pleasures, made him Archbishop of York and Chancellor of England. Pope Leo X. raised him to the dignity of cardinal in 1515; and three years later, he was created papal legate. His magnificence and splendour knew no bounds. His train consisted of 800 servants, of whom many were knights and gentlemen. His dresses, the trappings of his horses, the liveries of his attendants, glittered with gold and silver ornaments. On solemn feast days he performed divine service with a pomp equal to that of the Pope; and on these occasions he was not content to be served by bishops and abbots, but he engaged even the first nobility of the land to give him water and a towel. All this display was pleasing to a gay young king, and it was also gratifying to the people, from whose ranks Wolsey had risen. Literature and learning found in him a liberal patron. No student deserving of encouragement sought his aid in vain. Besides patronising learning, he was also impartial in the administration of justice. Such was the man who for twenty-one years occupied the most prominent place in English politics, and disposed of the affairs of Europe almost at his pleasure. Francis I. of France, the successor of Louis, wished to carry his arms into Italy, and therefore desired to maintain peace with England. He gained Wolsey's favour by flatteries and presents, and by these means a new treaty was made with Henry, in which it was agreed to surrender Tournay to France. On the death of Maximilian Emperor of Germany, in 1519, his grandson, Charles King of Spain, and Francis, became candidates for the imperial crown. When the election was decided in favour of Charles, Francis, fearing the power of his rival, courted the alliance of England. Charles ruled Spain, Austria, Naples, and the Netherlands. The New World, with its gold and silver treasures, was chiefly in his possession. England and France were the only nations that could contend with him, and these united were more than a match for him. Francis regarded the power of Charles with fear and jealousy, and

therefore he paid court to Wolsey, in the hope of securing the help of his royal master. He invited the English king to meet him in France, but before Henry set out, Charles visited England, and tried to detach Wolsey from Francis by holding out to him the prospect of becoming pope. The papacy was Wolsey's great ambition, and in the hope of obtaining it, he used all his influence to further the views of the emperor.

On the day of Charles's departure from England, Henry passed over to Calais, attended by his queen and the whole court. The interview between the kings of England and France took place between Guisnes and Ardres. For fourteen days the nobility of the two countries vied with each other in costly entertainments, and it is said that many of them sold all that they had in order to outshine others in splendour. From the tournaments, banquets, and gorgeous display observed on this occasion, the place was called the **Field of the Cloth of Gold.** The meeting ended in nothing but fair speeches. After leaving Francis, Henry visited Charles at Gravelines, near Calais, where the emperor renewed his promises to Wolsey, and further attached him to his interests by handsome presents of money.

1520 A.D.

On the king's return to England, the Duke of Buckingham, a descendant of Edward III., was executed on the charge of high treason. Some unguarded words of his about the succession to the throne were told to Henry, and his death was the result.

Second War with France and Scotland.

Two years after the 'Field of the Cloth of Gold,' war broke out between Charles and Francis. The emperor again came to England, for the purpose of securing Henry's help. During this visit, England declared war against France, and an army was sent under Earl Surrey to ravage the north of that country. In the following year, another English army desolated the country as far as the neighbourhood of Paris, but these

1522 A.D.

invasions were, on the whole, failures. In the meantime, the Scots, as old allies of France, were making great preparations for a raid across the borders. The English, however, instead of waiting to be attacked, marched into Scotland and forced the regent, Albany, to make a truce with them; and thus Henry was at liberty to carry out his designs upon the Continent.

The failure of the English invasions of France was due to want of money. Parliament had not met for seven years, but Henry, in the meantime, illegally made use of 'benevolences.' When the Parliament assembled, Wolsey, attended by many nobles and prelates, came down to the House of Commons, and demanded for his royal master a grant of 800,000*l.* Though the Speaker, Sir Thomas More, seconded the request, the House would only vote half the sum. The cardinal wished to argue the matter then and there, but he was respectfully informed that it was the rule of the House never to reason except among themselves. The independence of the Commons annoyed the king, and he allowed seven years to pass before assembling another Parliament.

Soon after this, Wolsey's friendship for the emperor began to cool. Twice he had been disappointed in obtaining the popedom. Pope Leo X. died in 1521, and Adrian VI. in 1523; and on the election of Clement VII., Wolsey saw that Charles would never keep his promise of aiding him to occupy the papal chair. He therefore resolved to wean Henry from the emperor's cause, and pave the way for an alliance with France. In 1525, Francis was defeated and captured by the imperialist army at the battle of Pavia, in Italy. Disagreements at once arose between England and Germany; Henry broke the alliance and made a treaty with the mother of Francis for the recovery of her son. The French king was liberated in the following year, but the war with the emperor immediately commenced again. In 1527, the imperialist forces attacked Rome, captured the Pope, and sacked the city. A new treaty was then made by Henry and Francis to drive the invaders out of Italy and set free the Pontiff.

The Reformation.

While the governments of England, France, and Germany were engaged in their quarrels with each other, a religious movement was taking place in the latter country, which produced changes of the utmost importance. Thoughtful men in all countries had long felt the necessity of making reforms in Church matters. Twice since the Norman Conquest men's minds had risen up against the tyrannical power of the Romish Church. The **Albigenses** in the south of France revolted against the papacy in the thirteenth century, but their spirit was crushed by a savage soldiery. In England, Wickliffe commenced a movement of a similar kind in the following century, which spread to Bohemia, and there gave rise to the second attempt in behalf of religious liberty. Both these struggles failed, because the time was not ripe for change. There was too little knowledge in Europe to ensure success. Men felt that things were going wrong, but they did not know how or where to put them right. Books were few and costly, and the art of printing was unknown. Many of the clergy could scarcely read, and not one in 500 of the laity could spell through a psalm. All that could be done was to check the power of the Church by special laws, and wait till light should come to dispel the darkness of ignorance. A new era came with the discovery of printing. A love of learning spread everywhere; books were eagerly bought and read; the Bible was studied, and men began to think for themselves. The abuses of the Church were now manifest; its errors were plain; the idle and corrupt life of many of the clergy and monastic orders caused honest men to blush; and a bold leader only was wanted to bring about a speedy reform. Such a leader Germany supplied in the person of **Martin Luther**, an Augustine monk, and Professor of Philosophy in the University of Wittenberg. Pope Leo X. wanted money to finish the church of St. Peter at Rome, to get which he sent monks to sell indulgences or temporal pardons for sins. One of these men, Tetzel by name, visited Wittenberg,

and was openly denounced by Luther. On the door of the church in Wittenberg, the latter fixed ninety-five propositions, in which he maintained, against the wicked sale of indulgences, *pardon only through faith in Jesus Christ.* Summoned to yield to the authority of the Church in these questions, Luther maintained in the palace-hall of Leipsic, before the great and wise of Germany, that '*the Bible was the only authority in matters of faith.*' At Wittenberg he publicly burned the papal bull of his excommunication, and by this act of defiance declared his undying opposition to the claims and errors of the Church over which the Pope presided. Luther's opinions spread like fire throughout Northern Germany. His followers so increased in number that it was impossible for any power on earth to crush them. In 1529 six princes and fourteen imperial cities *protested* against the decrees of the Diet of Spires, forbidding changes in religion, and on this account the Reformers were called **Protestants.**

1517 A.D.

1519 A.D.

1520 A.D.

The news of the Reform movement in Germany was gladly welcomed in England, where men's minds were eager for a like change. Henry, however, was opposed to it. He even wrote a book in Latin defending the Seven Sacraments against Luther, and sent a copy to Pope Leo X. The Pontiff, pleased with his royal champion, conferred upon him the title of Defender of the Faith (*Fidei Defensor*), which may still be seen on our coins in the letters 'F. D.' In spite of the king's opposition, the desire for a Reformation grew daily stronger and stronger, and the national feeling of independence in religious matters, and desire for freedom from foreign control, were rapidly making way.

Divorce of Queen Catherine. Fall of Wolsey.

After eighteen years of married life, the king applied to the Pope for a divorce from his wife Queen Catherine. Henry, for the last three or four years, had been troubled with scruples about his marriage with his brother's widow. He found himself growing into middle life without a son

to succeed to the throne. He saw all his children, with the exception of his daughter Mary, die a few days after birth. He thought this affliction to be Heaven's punishment for an unlawful marriage, and, in addition to a troubled conscience, the fear of a disputed succession to the throne disturbed his peace. Catherine was a woman deserving of the greatest respect. She was learned, accomplished, and virtuous, and devotedly attached to her husband. Henry, however, had other motives for a divorce besides scruples of conscience and affairs of State. A beautiful young lady, **Anne Boleyn**, grand-daughter of the Duke of Norfolk, had lately appeared at the court as maid of honour to the queen. The king fell violently in love with her, and therefore became all the more anxious to obtain a divorce. He applied to Pope Clement VII. for this purpose. The leading men in England approved of the king's intentions with regard to this matter; but there were many difficulties in the way. The Pope was then a prisoner in the hands of Charles, Catherine's nephew and he feared to offend his captor by granting the divorce, or the English king by refusing it. After much hesitation, he commissioned the cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio to open a court in London to try the lawfulness of the marriage. The king and queen were cited to appear before this tribunal, and they both presented themselves. The king answered to his name when called upon; but the queen, instead of responding, flung herself at her husband's feet, and besought him in piteous language to have mercy upon her. Finding her appeal fruitless, she refused to submit to the authority of the court, and withdrew. The trial was spun out for two months. Every day the king expected a decision in his favour; and both he and the chief men of the realm were indignant at the delay. While they were thus on the tip-toe of expectation, orders came from the Pope to transfer the cause to Rome. The king's fury knew no bounds; and the idea of an English king appearing before a foreign tribunal excited the bitterest anger of the nation. Upon Wolsey's head fell the indignation of king

1527 A.D.

May 31, **1529** A.D.

and people. Though he had tried to settle the question according to his master's wishes, the blame of failure was laid upon his shoulders. A papal court sitting in London was most unpopular with the nation; and when it ended in the manner it did, Wolsey was marked out for vengeance. He was the representative of that Pope who had insulted both sovereign and people, and ruin, therefore, was before him. The king at once dismissed him from the post of chancellor. He was ordered to leave York Place—a palace he had built in London, which afterwards became a royal residence, under the name of Whitehall. All his plate and furniture were seized, and he was ordered to retire to Esher, near Hampton Court. Parliament assembled and condemned him to fines and imprisonment for breaking the Statute of Præmunire by obtaining bulls from Rome, but Henry pardoned him, and allowed him to withdraw to his see of York. The cardinal, however, had many enemies, and in the following year he was suddenly arrested on the charge of high treason. On the way to London, he was seized with dysentery, and with difficulty reached Leicester Abbey, where he died. His last words were, 'Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs.'

1530 A.D.

Overthrow of the Papal Power in England. Suppression of the Monasteries.

Though Henry was indignant at the Pope's conduct, he did not wish to break with him altogether. The English king had no love for the Lutheran opinions, and he had no desire to favour their progress by weakening the papal authority. He still lived in hope that the Pope would come to some decision in his favour. Whilst matters were in this state of doubt, a proposal to settle the difficulty reached the king's ears, and was received with the greatest joy. Dr. Thomas Cranmer, Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, was one evening in the company of Gardiner, Secretary of State, afterwards Bishop of Winchester, and Fox, the king's almoner. Conversation turned upon the

divorce, when Cranmer suggested that the question should be put to the universities of Europe: 'Whether it was lawful for a man to marry his brother's widow.' The suggestion was carried to the king, who exclaimed: 'Who is this Dr. Cranmer? Where is he? Marry, I will speak to him; let him be sent for out of hand. This man, I trow, hath got the right sow by the ear.' The question was put to the universities, and the decision of the majority was in the king's favour. Cranmer's fortune was now made. In 1533 he became Archbishop of Canterbury, and received from the Pope a confirmation of his appointment.

In the meantime several important changes had taken place in England, which troubled the court of Rome. The English clergy were threatened with the punishment of præmunire for submitting to the authority of the legatine court over which Wolsey had presided. They, however, obtained the royal pardon by a fine of 118,840*l.* But to guard against forgetting the king's supreme authority for the future, the Convocation, or parliamentary assembly of the clergy, was compelled to acknowledge that *the king was the protector and supreme head of the Church and clergy of England, as far as is permitted by the law of Christ.* 1531 A.D. The Parliament of 1532 forbade the levying of first-fruits, which were a year's income given to the Pope by all bishops and archbishops upon presentation to their preferments. The payment of these was left in future to the king's discretion. The Parliament of 1533 forbade all appeals to Rome. These measures were warnings to the Pope of the danger that attended his conduct on the divorce question. He knew he was acting unjustly in refusing Henry's request, but he had not the courage to brave the anger of the Emperor Charles. Henry determined to wait no longer. In 1533, he privately married Anne Boleyn, and in the same year Archbishop Cranmer opened his court at Dunstable and pronounced the king's marriage with Catherine of Arragon invalid. Anne Boleyn was shortly afterwards crowned queen. Catherine spent the remaining three years of her life in retirement, and died at Kimbolton. The Pope, on hearing the news of Henry's

marriage, threatened to excommunicate him unless he put Anne away; but the king met the threat with defiance.

The excommunication of their sovereign roused the indignation of the nation. The whole country was moved to a man, and the excitement was intense. The clergy were consulted in Convocation, and they declared that 'the Bishop of Rome has no greater jurisdiction given him in this realm of England than any other foreign bishop.' Thus the Church of England declared in lawful synod her independence of papal authority. Then came the question 'Who was to be Head of the English Church? This was settled by Parliament in the 'Act of Supremacy,' which declared the king to be the supreme 'Head in earth of the Church of England.'

1534 A.D.

Though the English Church had asserted her independence, her teaching remained unaltered. Henry was still opposed to the Reformers, and prided himself upon the correctness of his religious views. The 'Act of Supremacy,' however, offended many. Sir Thomas More, and Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, lost their lives by refusing to accept it. (1535.) The monks, especially, were loud in their opposition, because they were dependent upon the Roman Pontiff; and many of them were detected in dangerous conspiracies. A half-witted Kentish girl, named Elizabeth Barton, was subject to hysterical fits, during which she was accustomed to say strange things. Silly people thought her inspired, and called her the **Holy Maid of Kent.** Designing priests taught her to speak against the new opinions which were making way in the country, and against the king's marriage and government. For a time no notice was taken of her, but at last she and her abettors were put to death.

One of the king's chief advisers at this time was Thomas Cromwell. This man had risen by his talents from the post of Wolsey's solicitor to that of Secretary of State, and Henry, after the separation of England from Rome, gave him the control of the temporal affairs of the Church, with the title of Vicar-General. He was afterwards raised to the rank of Earl of Essex. He advised

the king to suppress the monasteries, as the strongholds of the papacy, and to fill his coffers with their riches. A commission of enquiry having reported that many of these institutions were hot-beds of vice, Parliament voted the suppression of all those possessing a revenue below 200*l.* a year; and three years later the greater monasteries met with a similar fate. In all, 3,219 religious houses were suppressed, of which the annual income amounted to 161,000*l.*—equal to more than 2,000,000*l.* of modern money. With a portion of this sum six new bishoprics were created—Bristol, Gloucester, Peterborough, Chester, Oxford, and Westminster. Trinity College, Cambridge, and Christ Church, Oxford, were also established, and a few chapters, hospitals, and grammar schools founded. A pension was settled on the abbots and priors, but the great bulk of the property was granted to courtiers and favourites, sold at a low price, or gambled away.

1536 A.D.

The suppression of the monasteries caused much discontent, especially in the north. Houseless monks wandered through towns and villages, exciting men's pity, and their fears of future changes. Church property, they said, would be taken next, and the religion of their fathers would soon be a thing of the past. A strong papal party thus grew up, which thought to stop further reforms by force of arms. A rising occurred in Lincolnshire, but was soon suppressed. A more formidable one took place in Yorkshire, under the leadership of a gentleman named Aske. At the head of 40,000 men, he took York, Hull, and Pontefract Castle. The Archbishop of York and several nobles joined the movement, which received the name of **The Pilgrimage of Grace.** Priests in their robes marched in front, carrying crosses, and banners with sacred symbols woven upon them. The object of the insurrection was to drive base-born counsellors from about the king, to restore the papal power, and to suppress heresy. The rebellion was put down, and Aske and many others suffered death.

1537 A.D.

Anne Boleyn. Jane Seymour. Translations of the Bible. The Bloody Statute.

After three years of married life, Anne Boleyn perished on the scaffold. The king, disappointed at the failure of male issue, soon cooled in his affection, and Anne's enemies were ever on the watch to work her ruin. They excited Henry's jealousy by wicked stories about her, and as he was already in love with one of her maids of honour, he had no scruples in sending his wife to the Tower. She was brought to trial on the charge of unfaithfulness to her husband, and sentenced to death. No voice, save Cranmer's, was raised in her behalf, and the unhappy queen was beheaded. (May 17, 1536.) The following day the king married Jane Seymour. Parliament declared Anne Boleyn's marriage invalid, and her child Elizabeth illegitimate. In the following year, Jane Seymour gave birth to a son, afterwards Edward VI.; but the king's joy was cut short by the death of his queen twelve days after.

While these events were going on, Protestant opinions were making progress in England. Many persons were arrested and put to death for heresy. Translations of the Bible found their way into the country from abroad. William Tyndal published an English translation of the New Testament at Antwerp, in 1526; and four years later, he published a translation of the Old Testament. Tyndal died a martyr's death by fire, near Brussels, in 1536. In the same year, Miles Coverdale published the entire Bible in English. Tyndal's translations, on their first appearance in London, were bought up and burnt by the authorities; but after the overthrow of the papal power, Archbishop Cranmer did his utmost for the circulation of the Scriptures. A royal decree was issued that a copy of Coverdale's Bible should be placed in every parish church in England. Other editions soon followed —Matthews', in 1537; Cranmer's, or the Great Bible, in 1539; and Taverner's, in the same year. In 1537 there was also published a book for the religious guidance of the

1536 A.D.

people, called the *Institution of a Christian Man*, or the *Bishops' Book*, because it was dedicated by the bishops to the king. Six years later another publication was issued, entitled, *A Necessary Doctrine and Erudition for any Christian Man*, or the *King's Book*. These differed very considerably from each other, thus showing how unsettled were the minds of those in authority.

The circulation of the Scriptures by royal permission created a great sensation. People crowded to the churches to hear the sacred volume read, explained, and discussed; and even old men, in their eagerness, sometimes took lessons in reading, that they might find out the truth for themselves. But the privilege of an open Bible, as might be expected, was much abused. The Book was wrangled over in ale-houses and tap-rooms; noisy crowds gathered round the church porches, argued their opinions in boisterous tones, to the annoyance of worshippers within the sacred building, and ofttimes ended their disputes in scandalous brawls. These abuses called forth a royal decree in 1543, forbidding persons in the lower ranks of life to read the Bible.

Though Henry deserves credit for circulating the Scriptures amongst his subjects, yet he was still bitterly opposed to the Lutheran opinions. He had made the English Church independent of Rome, but he had no intention of changing her doctrines. It was impossible, however, to preserve the old faith unbroken. The overthrow of the papal power removed one great obstacle to the spread of knowledge and the right of enquiry. Men claimed freedom of thought for themselves, as much as the king claimed freedom for the National Church, and consequently the nation was torn by religious parties, which hated one another to the greatest degree. There were, first, the **Romanists**, who longed to restore the authority of the Pope; there were, secondly, the **Anglicans**, consisting of the majority of the bishops and the ancient nobility, who liked independence for their Church, but hated all other changes; there were, thirdly, the **Reformers**, consisting of Cranmer and other bishops, and many of the nobility, who at this time differed from the Protestants in the single doctrine of transubstantiation; and

lastly, there were the **Protestants Proper**, who, in their zeal against error, hated much in the old faith that was true. To put an end to the religious quarrels which these various parties raised throughout the land, a Parliament assembled on purpose, passed the Statute of **The Six Articles**, which, from its severity, was called the 'Bloody Statute,' and 'the whip with six strings.' It enacted—(1) the doctrine of transubstantiation; (2) that Communion in both kinds was unnecessary; (3) that it was unlawful for priests to marry; (4) that vows of chastity were binding; (5) that private Masses ought to be continued; (6) that auricular confession should be retained. The punishment for breaking Article 1 was death by burning; for the remaining five, loss of property for the first offence, and death for the second. The passing of this Act was a great blow to the Reforming party in the State. In a short time 500 persons were thrown into prison, and bishops Latimer and Shaxton were also imprisoned and compelled to resign their sees. To increase still further the king's power in those critical times, the same Parliament passed a decree giving to a royal proclamation the force of law. This measure made Henry a despotic king.

1539 A.D.

Anne of Cleves. Catherine Howard. Catherine Parr.

Three years had passed since the death of Jane Seymour. Cromwell, the king's chief minister, advised his master to take another wife from Protestant Germany. There were several reasons for such a marriage. The powers of Rome were at work to crush the Reformation, and England, especially, was an object of attack. A marriage with a German Protestant princess might end in a league against papal designs, and be a set-off against the party in England which had succeeded in passing the Six Articles. A portrait of Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves, was presented to Henry, and it was settled that she should come to England for marriage. When the king saw her, he was greatly disappointed with her appearance and manners. Her

portrait led him to expect a beautiful lady, but he declared that they had sent him a Flanders mare. It required much persuasion before he could be prevailed upon to carry out his engagements. Only the fear of driving the Lutheran princes into the arms of his enemy, the Emperor Charles, overcame his repugnance, and the marriage took place. (January 6, 1540.) Henry could never conquer his dislike for Anne, and his capricious temper vented its displeasure upon the minister who had arranged the match. Cromwell was hated on all sides. The old nobility looked upon him as a proud upstart; the clergy hated him as the adviser of the spoliation of the monasteries; and the Protestant party blamed him for his seeming support of the 'Six Articles.' His enemies, taking advantage of the king's disappointment and displeasure, obtained permission to arrest him on the charge of high treason. He was suddenly seized at the Council table, sent to the Tower, condemned by bill of attainder, and beheaded. This was another victory for the enemies of the Reformation. Measures were at once taken to break the alliance with the Protestant princes of Germany by divorcing Anne of Cleves. A judicial separation was obtained on the ground that the marriage had taken place against the king's will. Anne received a pension of 3,000*l.* per year, and retired to Richmond Palace. She lived in England till her death, in 1557.

July 28, **1540** A.D.

Henry's fifth wife was Catherine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk. This marriage was favourably regarded by the Romanist party. The 'Bloody Statute' was enforced with greater vigour, though the enemies of the royal supremacy did not escape. The king had scarcely been married six months before rumours were afloat that his wife had been immoral previous to her marriage. Henry received the news with amazement, and his vindictive spirit resolved on vengeance. Love gave way to hate, and Catherine Howard suffered the same fate on Tower Hill as Anne Boleyn. Her accomplice, Lady Rochford, who had been the chief instrument in the ruin of Anne Boleyn, perished at the same time.

Feb. 12, **1542** A.D.

Henry's last wife was Catherine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, and a woman of virtue and good sense. (July 12, 1543.) She secretly favoured the Reform party, and carefully instructed Prince Edward and the Princess Elizabeth in her principles. Up to this time the public worship of the Church was carried on in Latin, though the Bible was allowed in English. But in 1544, the Litany was ordered to be said in the vulgar tongue; and in the following year a collection of English prayers for morning and evening service was directed to be used in the place of the breviary. Catherine Parr, though careful of her opinions, was once in great danger. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, the leader of the Anglican party, dreaded her influence. On one occasion she displeased the king by advocating too freely the views of the Reformers, and Gardiner took advantage of this to draw up articles of impeachment against her. A friend warned her of the danger, and, by rare tact, she disarmed the king's displeasure, and defeated the designs of her enemies.

War with Scotland and France. Execution of the Earl of Surrey.

Ever since the rupture with Rome, the friends of the papacy were busy in plots against England. James V. of Scotland, as a friend of the Pope, encouraged his subjects in attacks upon the English. Henry, in consequence, declared war against Scotland. While the English army lay at Berwick, 10,000 Scots entered Cumberland. A small body of English suddenly attacked them near the Solway, and put them to flight. This affair is known as the **Rout of Solway**. James was so vexed at this defeat, that he shut himself up, and died of grief, shortly after the birth of an only daughter. Henry wished to marry his son Edward to this princess, afterwards the famous Mary Queen of Scots, but the papal party in Scotland refused the match, and made an alliance with the French king. Henry, in revenge, made war with France. With 30,000 men, he landed at Calais, and captured

1542 A.D.

Boulogne, after a siege of two months. (1544.) The war continued for two years longer without any important results. Peace was concluded in 1546, by which it was agreed that Henry should restore Boulogne in eight years, and receive in return 2,000,000 crowns. Scotland was also included in the treaty.

At home the struggle of the religious parties went on as bitterly as ever; but the last year of Henry's life was marked by a favourable change towards the Reformation movement. In 1546, the king offered to unite with the Lutheran princes in a league, offensive and defensive, to be called the 'League Christian.' He also hinted to Cranmer his intention of abolishing the Mass. The Anglican and Roman parties viewed with jealousy the king's strong leaning to the party of progress, and plotted for the restoration of the papal authority. The hope of the Anglicans was fixed upon the family of the Duke of Norfolk. Earl Surrey, the duke's son, intrigued to obtain for his family the chief authority in the realm after the king's death. He assumed on his shield the quarterings of the arms of the heir-apparent to the throne, and thus enabled his opponents to accuse him of aiming at the crown. The king ordered the arrest of father and son; and the young earl was condemned and executed for high treason. (January 19, 1547.) Earl Surrey was distinguished as a scholar, courtier, and soldier; and his poetical writings have given him a high place in English literature. But ambition and party zeal excited him to play for a high stake, and he lost. The Duke of Norfolk was condemned by bill of attainder as a party to his son's schemes, but his life was saved by the king's death on the night before the day fixed for his execution.

Death and Character of Henry.

Henry had suffered very much in his latter years from an ulcer in the leg. His body, besides, had become corpulent and unwieldy, so that he had to be carried about from one apartment to the other. He was well enough the day

before his death to talk with some of his ministers upon the condition of the country, and he gave them good advice about the future policy of the government. But in the evening he grew rapidly worse. He expressed a wish to see Archbishop Cranmer. When the prelate reached Whitehall, the king, though conscious, was speechless. Cranmer, 'speaking comfortably to him, desired him to give him some token that he put his trust in God through Jesus Christ; therewith the king wrung hard the archbishop's hand,' and expired. (January 28, 1547.) He was buried in St. George's Chapel, Windsor.

He bequeathed the throne by will to Edward his son, then to Mary, then to Elizabeth; and, in default of issue, to the heirs of his sister Mary, who had married the Duke of Suffolk.

Henry was a man of vigorous mind and strong will. Once resolved upon anything, nothing could divert him from his purpose. He was open, blunt, and courageous, but possessed of a temper fierce, unbending, and unforgiving. Many of his acts are marked by cruelty and injustice; but his position was surrounded with the greatest difficulty, and harsh measures were sometimes necessary to save the country in the crisis through which it was then passing.

Miscellaneous Facts.

The House of Commons increased very much in importance, from the king's practice of appealing to it in support of his measures, and by the use he made of it to subdue the resistance of the House of Lords.

In 1536, Wales was incorporated with England, and sent representatives to Parliament. In 1542, Ireland became a **kingdom.** On Henry's accession, his authority only extended over its chief seaports and eastern counties. The remainder of the island was under the rule of sixty chieftains of Irish, and thirty of English descent. Henry won over the leaders, and persuaded them to acknowledge his supremacy, both spiritual and temporal. This king is considered the real founder of the Royal Navy.

He established dockyards at Woolwich, Deptford, and Portsmouth; appointed a Board of Admiralty, and placed the naval service on a distinct footing. Trinity House was established to encourage navigation. The College of Physicians was instituted. Muskets, invented by the Spaniards, took the place of bows and arrows. Parish registers of births, deaths, and marriages, were established by Cromwell. The pound was first called a sovereign. Hops, cabbages, carrots, turnips, celery, lettuces, were brought from Holland and Flanders. Gipsies first made their appearance in England about this time.

Costume; illustrative of the period.

EDWARD VI.

Born 1537 A.D. Began to Reign 1547 A.D. Died 1553 A.D.

The Regency.
War with Scotland.
Lord Seymour.
Progress of the Reformation.
Popular Insurrections.
Fall of Somerset.
Northumberland's Rule.
Death of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

The Regency. War with Scotland. Lord Seymour.

EDWARD VI. came to the throne in the tenth year of his age. He was the only son of Jane Seymour. The Government was invested in a council of sixteen, of which two were bishops—Cranmer and the Bishop of Durham—and the rest laymen. The Council, contrary to the late king's will, appointed one of their number, the Earl of Hertford, brother of Jane Seymour, as Protector of the kingdom. One of the first acts of the Government was to create some new peers in the place of those extinct by war, disease, and the executioner's sword. The Protector, accordingly, became Duke of Somerset. The two great religious parties in the State were fairly represented in the Council. Somerset favoured the Reformers, while the Lord Chancellor, newly created Earl of Southampton, maintained opposite views. The Protector, however, succeeded in obtaining the dismissal of the Chancellor for exceeding his authority. But not satisfied with this advantage, he increased his own authority by obtaining a patent from young Edward which entirely upset the will of Henry VIII. He thus became Protector with regal power; but it was significant that only seven of the Council signed their names to this new commission.

In 1543, Henry VIII. had concluded a treaty with Scotland, in which it was agreed that Prince Edward

should marry the young Queen of Scots. The Protector Somerset was anxious to fulfil this article of the treaty, but the feeling in Scotland was opposed to it. He therefore invaded that country at the head of 18,000 men, for the purpose of compelling the Scots to fulfil their agreement. The Regent Arran met him at **Pinkie**, near Musselburgh, with an army twice as numerous. A fierce battle ensued, in which the Scots lost from ten to fourteen thousand men, while the English loss amounted to about two hundred. Leith was then captured and burnt, the ships in the harbour taken and destroyed, a few castles dismantled, and two small islands garrisoned in the Forth. These were all the advantages the Protector reaped from the invasion; while, on the other hand, the hatred of the Scots to England was increased, and the marriage made impossible. Queen Mary was sent to France for safety, and in the course of time became the wife of the dauphin.

Sept. 10, **1547** A.D.

The Protector hurriedly returned from Scotland to put a stop to the intrigues of his brother, Lord Seymour, the Admiral of England, who had married the widow of Henry VIII. This nobleman envied his brother's power, and plotted to undermine his authority. After the death of his wife, he paid his addresses to the Princess Elizabeth, then in her sixteenth year. His plots and schemes of ambition were cut short. A bill of attainder was passed against him, and he was executed on Tower Hill. (March 29, 1549.)

Progress of the Reformation.

This short reign is remarkable for the vigorous progress of the Reformation of the English Church. The Protector was well known to be favourable to this movement. His accession to office was the signal for those who had been sternly kept down by Henry VIII. to preach boldly against the errors of the Church. In many places, the people themselves had taken the matter into their own hands, and cleared the churches of things thought objectionable, without waiting for instructions from those in authority. Early

in 1547, an order was issued by the Government for the general purification of the churches, and forthwith images were taken down, stained-glass windows removed, and the walls whitewashed to hide the painted stories of gospel history and legends of saints. A commission was appointed to visit each diocese and parish, to report upon the state of religion, and to carry into effect the orders of the Council. Amongst other things, it was directed that a large Bible in English should be immediately placed in every church, and also a copy of Erasmus's 'Paraphrase of the Gospels.' Certain parts of the public services of the Church were to be read in English, and twelve sermons, or **Homilies**, prepared by Cranmer, were issued to supply the lack of preaching power. These changes were, on the whole, well received in towns, but in country places they were not so favourably regarded. Bonner, Bishop of London, and Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, were imprisoned for resisting the commissioners, but were soon liberated. On the assembling of Parliament, the laws of Henry IV. and Henry V. against the Lollards were repealed, as well as the 'Six Articles' of the late reign. A committee of bishops and divines drew up for the use of the Church a new service-book, which is known as **The First Book of Common Prayer**, and was first published in 1549. At the same time Parliament enforced the use of this prayer-book by passing the first *Act of Uniformity*. Bishops Gardiner and Bonner, still continuing their opposition to the Reformation, were deprived of their sees. Forty-two Articles of Religion, containing the doctrines of the English Church, were drawn up in 1551; the first prayer-book was revised and published in the following year, and a second Act of Uniformity passed at the same time. These important changes, which made the Church of England such as we find it in the present day, were chiefly carried out under the superintendence of Archbishop Cranmer, and Ridley, Bishop of London.

Persecution for religious opinions did not cease with the work of Reformation. Toleration was not then understood, neither was it anywhere practised. Obedience to the

directions of the prayer-book was required of all persons, and those who disputed its teaching were treated as heretics, and punished accordingly. Thus Joan Bocher, of Kent, and a Dutch surgeon, named Van Paris, were burnt for heresy.

Popular Insurrections.

The religious reforms of this reign caused much discontent in many parts of the country. Many men took part in the work of the Reformation for their own selfish ends. They cared more for gain than for truth, and their unscrupulous dealing, in consequence, roused many foes. But there were other causes at work to excite the discontent of the people. Side by side with the progress of the Reformation, there was a great social change going on. The feudal system was crumbling to pieces, producing between landlord and tenant many differences of opinion as to the rights of property. The high price of wool and the cheapness of sheep-farming tempted landlords to turn their plough-lands into grass, and throw several farms into one. Labourers were thus deprived of work, and left to shift for themselves. The evil was further increased by the great number of freemen which the decay of the feudal system had sent into the labour market. Wages were, in consequence, very low; and, to make bad worse, they were paid in base coin. Increase of sheep-farming, too, lessened the production of corn, and bread became dear. Rapacious landlords, besides, enclosed many of the commons, turned forests into parks, hedged round and appropriated public pastures in which cottagers formerly fed their cattle. Laws were passed, in vain, to save the poor from beggary and starvation. Love of gain suggested many ways of evading the statutes enacted to check the increase of sheep-farms. The villages and highways were, in consequence, covered with outcast families reduced to beggary; and thousands of dispossessed tenants, once the holders of comfortable homes, surrounded by starving children, clamoured in vain for redress. There was then no poor-rate to relieve the distressed. In former times, the hungry labourer and the traveller found in the

monasteries relief and shelter; but these institutions no longer existed, and as yet no plan was devised to do their charitable work. There was no other course open to the poor man than to beg from place to place. But the Government would not allow this. To put down the swarms of beggars which covered the country, severe laws were passed, by which persons begging without a license were sentenced to be whipped, branded, lose one of their ears, be made slaves for life, or hanged,—the punishment depending upon the number of convictions. A distressed population offered an excellent field to the enemies of the Reformation. The numerous houseless monks found little trouble in persuading the people to look upon the changes in religion as the chief cause of their wretched condition, and the flames of insurrection soon broke out in several parts of the country; but they were nowhere dangerous except in Cornwall, Devonshire, and Norfolk. In the two former counties, 10,000 men appeared in arms, demanding the restoration of the old faith and the extinction of Protestantism by fire and sword. (1549.) Lord Russell was sent against them, who, after some severe fighting, dispersed the rioters with great slaughter. The ringleaders were executed in London, and many of the lower orders were put to death by martial law.

But the rising in Norfolk was far more serious. On Mousehold Hill, near Norwich, one Ket, a wealthy tanner, formed a camp, around which 16,000 suffering yeomen and farm-servants soon collected. A large oak tree stood in the midst of the adjacent common, and under its branches Ket sat daily administering justice, and trying the country gentlemen for their conduct to the poor. The Norfolk rebels demanded the destruction of enclosures, and the reform of local abuses. The Earl of Warwick, at the head of 6,000 men, attacked the insurgents. Two thousand rebels fell in the action; Ket was hanged at Norwich Castle, and the rising was entirely put down. (1549.)

These disturbances originated the appointment of lords-lieutenants of counties, with authority to levy men, and lead them against the enemies of the king.

Fall of Somerset.

The blame of all the disorders of the country fell upon the Protector. The government of England was a difficult task, and from the first he had many enemies to contend against. Ambition led him to obtain a patent for the purpose of increasing his authority, and then he did many things without consulting his fellow-Councillors. The old nobility regarded him as an upstart, and were disgusted with him because he sided with the poor in their grievances against the rich. The Romish party hated him for his zeal in the work of Reformation. Many blamed him for the execution of his brother, Lord Seymour. The palace which he was building in the Strand excited the jealousy of the nobility and the ill-will of the populace. To obtain materials and space enough for this building, he pulled down two churches, the town-houses of three bishops, and the chapels attached to them. He had also appropriated to himself the spoils of five or six religious houses, in addition to three granted to him by Henry VIII. Foreign affairs were also unsuccessful in his hands. The English garrisons were driven from the castles of Broughty and Haddington, in Scotland, and the French had all but retaken Boulogne. Somerset's great rival at the Council Board was Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of the rapacious minister of Henry VII. Created Viscount Lisle by Henry VIII., he was appointed a member of the Council of Regency, and received the title of Earl of Warwick on the accession of Edward VI. This nobleman and others of the Council expressed dissatisfaction with the Protector's government, and began to act independently of his authority. Somerset became angry. He accused the Council of treason, and of intending to restore the papal authority; he appealed to the people for help to defend the crown, and took the young king from Hampton Court to Windsor. His appeals to the country having failed, he was obliged to surrender himself to the will of the Council, and he was sent to the Tower on the charge of usurping the king's power.

Before the Council, Somerset confessed on his knees the charges brought against him. Parliament deprived him of all his offices, and inflicted upon him a fine of 2,000*l.* a year; but through the king's kindness, he escaped the payment of this ruinous sum, and soon regained his freedom. After a short time, he was readmitted into the Council, and became apparently reconciled to his rival the Earl of Warwick. He even married his daughter to this nobleman's eldest son.

Oct. 1549 A.D.

On the fall of the Duke of Somerset, Warwick became the leading man in the regency. Not content with this position, his ambition led him to covet the earldom of Northumberland, which he succeeded in getting, with the title of Duke. One success inspired hopes of others; but feeling that Somerset was a bar to further ambitious projects, he determined to get rid of him. The Duke of Somerset, aware of Northumberland's intentions, plotted to upset his authority. His plans were betrayed; and he was forthwith arrested on a charge of conspiring to seize the king, and plotting against the lives of certain members of the Council. Condemned on the charge of felony, the unfortunate Protector was beheaded on Tower Hill, amidst a great concourse of people, who remembered that he had always showed himself their friend. Crowding round the scaffold, they dipped their handkerchiefs in his blood; that they might have some remembrance of one who, with all his faults, had ever taken a lively interest in their welfare.

Jan. 22, 1552 A.D.

Northumberland's Rule. Death of the King.

The chief authority in the kingdom was now in the hands of Northumberland. He won the confidence and affection of the young king by his apparent zeal for the Reformation. When Edward's health threatened to give way, the ambitious duke began to scheme to get the crown for his own family. He married his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley, to Lady Jane Grey, the daughter of the Marchioness of Dorset, and great-granddaughter of

Henry VII. Knowing Edward's love for the Reformation, he began to work upon his fears with respect to its fate if his sister Mary, who was known to be devotedly attached to the Romish faith, should succeed to the throne. He urged him to set aside her claims, and also those of Elizabeth, and bequeath the crown to Lady Jane Grey. The king consented to this arrangement, and ordered the judges to draw up letters patent to this effect. At first they hesitated to comply, but the threats of Northumberland and the king's command prevailed. The patent was signed at Greenwich by the chief of the nobility, Cranmer's name being the last added.

Edward VI. and Lady Jane Grey.

Immediately after this event, Edward became rapidly worse. His physicians were dismissed, and he was put under the care of a woman who professed to work a speedy

cure. But her medicines increased his illness. Eruptions came out over his skin; his hair fell off, and then his nails, and afterwards the joints of his toes and fingers. Rumour said that Northumberland, having completed his arrangements, hastened the king's death by poison. Edward died at Greenwich, in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign. He was a prince gentle and studious, pious and affectionate, and full of much promise.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1553 Sir Hugh Willoughby sailed from England with three ships to discover a north-east passage to India. One vessel found its way into the White Sea, and wintered at Archangel. The others were wrecked with loss of all hands off the coast of Nova Zembla. The Book of Psalms was turned into verse. Edward founded Christ's Hospital for the education of the poor, and restored St. Thomas's for the relief of the sick. Bridewell was also given to the citizens of London for the correction of the idle. Crowns and half-crowns were first coined. The 'sweating sickness' entirely left the country in this reign.

MARY I.

Born 1516 A.D. Began to Reign 1553 A.D. Died 1558 A.D.

Lady Jane Grey.
Execution of Northumberland.
Restoration of Romanism.
Insurrection.
Execution of Lady Jane Grey.
The Marian Persecution.
War with France.
Death and Character of the Queen.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Lady Jane Grey. Execution of Northumberland.

NORTHUMBERLAND kept the death of Edward a secret for two days, in the hope of getting possession of the Princess Mary. He at once proclaimed the accession of Lady Jane Grey, but the Londoners received the heralds in silence. The Lady Jane was the eldest daughter of the Marquis of Dorset, who had lately been created Duke of Suffolk. She was about the same age as Edward VI., and was, like him, studious and accomplished far beyond her age. At fifteen she was learning Hebrew, and could write Greek; at sixteen, she could correspond with divines in Latin. She was pious and amiable, and in every way a pattern of virtue. The news of her accession caused her the greatest grief. The crown was, indeed, forced upon her by her ambitious father-in-law, and for twelve days she bore the name of queen. In the meanwhile Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Arragon, having escaped the troops sent for her capture, was receiving the homage of the nobility and gentry in Suffolk. Men of all ranks and creeds rallied round her. The Duke of Northumberland marched into Suffolk at the head of 6,000 men, but his forces were so thinned by desertion that he was obliged to retreat. Everywhere the accession of Mary was hailed with shouts of applause. The Council, who had signed the letters patent of Edward VI., pronounced in her

favour, and their example was at once followed by the City of London. There was now no hope for the Lady Jane. Her father rushed to her room in the Tower, and announced that she was no longer queen. Northumberland was at Cambridge when the news of the doings of the Council reached him. Finding that success was hopeless, he threw up his cap and shouted, 'God save Queen Mary!' But his submission came too late. He was at once arrested and sent to the Tower, together with the Duke of Suffolk, Guilford Dudley, Lady Jane Grey, and several others. Northumberland expiated his guilt on the scaffold; Suffolk was pardoned; and the Lady Jane and her husband were kept in close confinement, under sentence of death. Mary entered London in triumph, accompanied by Anne of Cleves and the Princess Elizabeth. (August 3, 1553.)

Restoration of Romanism.

Mary was warmly attached to her mother's religion, and she resolved to restore it in England in all its integrity. Gardiner, Bonner, and other bishops who had been removed in the late reign, were at once replaced in their sees, while, on the other hand, Holgate, Archbishop of York, Coverdale, Bishop of Exeter, Ridley of London, Hooper of Gloucester, and Latimer of Worcester, were sent to prison. The clergy generally were encouraged to revive the Mass and all the ceremonies of the old religion without waiting for the sanction of the law. All the foreign divines who had found a refuge and a welcome in England in the late reign were ordered to leave the country. Cranmer, though urged to fly from the danger evidently awaiting him, refused to leave his post, and, after a few weeks, he was sent to the Tower condemned on the charge of high treason, but the punishment of death was not then inflicted. Parliament was opened with a gorgeous celebration of the Mass in Latin, in defiance of the law. That assembly then ratified the marriage of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Arragon, and annulled the divorce which had been pronounced by Cranmer. All the laws respecting religion passed in the late reign were

repealed, and the form of divine worship as in the last year of Henry VIII. was re-established. The married clergy were separated from their wives or removed from their office, and persecution threatened all who refused submission to the change in religion.

In the following year, Cardinal Pole returned to England as papal legate, and invited the Houses of Parliament to become reconciled to the Pope. They voted an address, in which they supplicated pardon for the errors of the nation, and prayed to be admitted once more into communion with the Church of Rome. Gardiner presented the petition to the Cardinal. At Whitehall the Parliament, on bended knees, received from Pole the words of absolution and were once more received into the bosom of the Romish Church. The queen surrendered to the legate all the Church lands in the possession of the crown, but the nobility, by the Pope's permission, were allowed to keep all that they had received in the two previous reigns.

Nov. 30, **1554** A.D.

Insurrections. Execution of Lady Jane Grey.

As soon as the Emperor Charles heard of Mary's accession, he proposed his son Philip to her for a husband. Philip was a widower, eleven years younger than the queen; but the difference in age offered no bar to the marriage. The news of such an alliance with the Court of Spain caused the greatest dread amongst all ranks of people. The Protestants were already alarmed at the revival of the Mass, and considered a marriage with a prince of the most bigoted Roman Catholic country in Europe as certain destruction to themselves. Both Lords and Commons were fearful for the independence of the nation. They thought that, under a Spanish king, England would become a province of Spain. Remonstrances were in vain presented to the queen; her mind was bent on the match, and Philip she was determined to have. Plots were then set on foot to prevent the marriage by force of arms. The French, jealous of the increase of Spanish influence,

encouraged the conspirators with promises of assistance. Sir Thomas Wyatt proposed to raise the men of Kent; Sir Peter Carew, Devonshire; and the Duke of Suffolk, the Midland counties. Carew and Suffolk failed at the outset; but Wyatt's attempt was at first attended with success. At Rochester, the yeomanry and peasantry of Kent flocked round his standard. The Duke of Norfolk, at the head of the London train bands, was sent against him, but his men joined the rebel ranks. Wyatt forced his way into London, where his followers, finding that the nobility kept aloof from the movement, gradually fell away, and he was at last seized near Temple Bar, and executed. Sixty or seventy others also suffered for this rebellion. Four hundred, with ropes round their necks, were led before the queen, and, falling on their knees, received a pardon. (February, 1554.)

This rising cost the lives of Lady Jane Grey and her husband. The Duke of Suffolk's guilt was considered a good excuse of ridding the land of one who was once called queen. Lady Jane and her husband were, accordingly, executed within the Tower walls. Dudley suffered first, and his bleeding body was borne past his young wife, as she was going to the scaffold. Her father soon after met with a similar fate. The queen sent to prison many of the nobility and gentry who were suspected of disaffection. The Princess Elizabeth was also in danger of her life. The Spanish ambassador and Bishop Gardiner advised the queen to put her to death. She was sent to the Tower, but nothing could be found to implicate her in the late rising, and after two months, she was removed to Woodstock as a place of confinement.

The Marian Persecution.

The suppression of Wyatt's rebellion strengthened the hands of the queen, and hastened the marriage with Philip of Spain. That prince landed at Southampton on July 20, 1554, and in a few days he was married to Mary at Winchester. It was after this event that the Parliament

became reconciled to the Pope. An Assembly which on bended knees craved absolution from a papal legate would not scruple to revive the cruel laws against heretics, and so the old statutes against the Lollards, abolished in the last reign, again came into force. Thus armed, Bishops Gardiner and Bonner bent their minds to exterminate heresy with the terrors of the stake. In the beginning of the year 1555, the dreadful persecution of the Reformers began. The first victims were Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester; Rogers, Prebendary of St. Paul's; Saunders, Rector of Allhallows; and Taylor, Rector of Hadleigh, in Suffolk. The cruel work, thus begun, continued till the close of the reign. Bonner, Bishop of London, was the chief tool employed in this crusade, and he received for his cruelty the name of 'Bloody Bonner.' Ridley, Bishop of London, and Latimer, formerly Bishop of Worcester, two prelates famous for their learning and virtue, suffered together at Oxford, in front of Baliol College. When the flames began to crackle, the aged Latimer cried out to his brother martyr, 'Be of good comfort, Master Ridley! Play the man! we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out.' Friends had placed bags of powder about the neck of each to put an end to their sufferings. Latimer died almost immediately; but his companion's death was very slow.

1555 A.D.

Archbishop Cranmer was tried at the same time as Ridley and Latimer, but he was too great a person to be hurriedly put to death. He was considered the leading spirit of the English Reformation, and it was thought that, if he could be persuaded to change his opinions, the Reformation would receive a blow from which it would never recover. He was therefore kept for months in prison; persons were sent to tamper with him; and promises of life were held out if he would recant. Overcome at last by long imprisonment, by the horrors of the stake, and by love of life, he consented to retract his opinions. But this did not save him. The queen hated him for his part in her mother's divorce; Pole was anxiously waiting to

become his successor in the see of Canterbury; and, therefore, die he must. On the day of execution, permission was given to the archbishop to make a public denial of his faith; but to the surprise and dismay of his enemies, he said that his recantation was caused through fear, and that he bitterly repented his weakness. Cranmer was then hurried to the spot already consecrated by the deaths of Ridley and Latimer. When fastened to the stake, he said, 'This was the hand that wrote it, therefore it shall suffer first punishment.' The wood was dry and well laid; the fire rapidly spread, and the martyr was soon dead. Before the flames touched his body, his right hand was seen extended in the fire, and he never flinched nor cried.

Mar. 21, **1556** A.D.

During the three years' persecution, nearly 300 persons suffered at the stake, besides those who were punished by imprisonments, tortures, and fines. The bishops' prisons were crowded with poor men and women, who were treated like dogs. 'They were beaten, they were starved, they were flung into dark, fetid dens, where rotting straw was their bed, their feet were fettered in the stocks, and their clothes were their only covering in the cold winter months; while the wretches who died in their misery were flung out into the fields where none might bury them.' These atrocities turned the hearts of the people from a religion which could encourage such inhumanity, and paved the way for the restoration of the Reformed Church. Every martyrdom was more effective than a hundred sermons against popery. The spectators withdrew to their homes, struck by a faith that could defy the horrors of the stake, and full of indignation at the cruelty of the persecutors. Some say that Cardinal Pole was opposed to these barbarities, but it is a remarkable fact that, if Smithfield be excepted, the most frightful scenes in this cruel period were seen at Canterbury, of which diocese he was archbishop.

Many of the Reformers sought refuge on the Continent, chiefly at Frankfort and Geneva. They returned home in the following reign, and founded the sect of the Puritans.

War with France. Loss of Calais. Death of the Queen.

Philip did not remain a year in England after his marriage. He was never at home here. He disliked the country, and the people disliked him, and he was therefore glad to get away. Shortly after his departure, the Emperor Charles V. abdicated, and he became King of Spain, under the title of Philip II. Two years afterwards, he returned to England for the purpose of persuading the queen to join him in the war with France. The treaty of marriage had stipulated that England should not fight with France in the cause of Spain; but Mary, anxious to please her husband, did her best to help him. The Government opposed the undertaking, and would most probably have succeeded in its opposition had not France given some cause of offence. The French court thought that by keeping Mary in alarm at home, the less likely she would be to join in the war. Some English exiles in Paris were, therefore, encouraged to make a descent upon England. Sir Thomas Stafford, grandson of that Duke of Buckingham who had been put to death under Henry VIII., set out from the Seine with two ships well manned, surprised Scarborough Castle, and sent a proclamation throughout Yorkshire calling upon the people to rise in behalf of English liberty. In two days, Stafford and his companions were prisoners, and thirty-one of them were put to death. War was then declared against France, and a force of 7,000 men was sent to join the Spaniards in the Netherlands. Two days before their arrival, the Spaniards gained a decisive victory over the French at St. Quentin, and the allied forces afterwards stormed and sacked the town. (August 1557.) In the following winter, the Duke of Guise suddenly attacked Calais, and took it after a siege of eight days. The town on the land side was protected by marshes which, by sluices, could be put under water at high tide. It was thought so well defended that it was customary to withdraw a portion of the garrison in the winter months. The

Jan. 6, **1558** A.D.

French, aware of this, surprised the place with an army of 30,000 men, and thus took in eight days what cost Edward III. a siege of eleven months. The loss of Calais caused grief and shame in England. For 200 years and more, it had given to the English kings an easy entrance into France, and was called the 'brightest jewel in the English crown.'

Mary's health was failing fast when the disgraceful news of this loss reached her. She was affected to tears, and said that when she was dead 'Calais' would be found written on her heart. Her body was afflicted with dropsy, and her mind was saddened by disappointment. Deserted by her husband, hated by her subjects, tormented by disease, her latter days were full of bitterness. She died of a lingering fever, after a short reign of five years, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. (November 1558.) No sovereign ever ascended the throne with greater popularity than Mary; but her obstinate, bigoted character, her cruel measures in favour of popery, turned the love of the people into hatred, and she went down to the grave unwept and childless, leaving in the memory of the nation the undying name of 'Bloody Mary.' Cardinal Pole, her kinsman and chief adviser, died on the same day.

Miscellaneous Facts.

The first commercial treaty with Russia was made in this reign. Coaches are said to have first appeared in England about the year 1555.

ELIZABETH.

Born 1533 A.D. Began to Reign 1558 A.D. Died 1603 A.D.

Elizabeth's Accession.
Completion of the Reformation.
Mary Queen of Scots.
Conspiracies in favour of Mary.
The Spanish Armada.
Rebellion in Ireland.
Execution of Essex.
Death and Character of Elizabeth.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Elizabeth's Accession. Completion of the Reformation.

ELIZABETH, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, succeeded her sister. She was living at Hatfield when Mary died, nominally free, but in reality a prisoner. Her accession was hailed with the greatest delight. Joy-bells answered from steeple to steeple, bonfires blazed in every open spot, and festive-boards filled the streets. Yet there were many difficulties in her way. The clerical party, knowing her leaning to the Reformation movement, looked with greater favour upon the claims of Mary Queen of Scots; the Pope refused to acknowledge her title; and Philip of Spain expected her to act according to his will. The King of France, too, decided against her claims, and persuaded Mary of Scots to take the arms and style of Queen of England. The Archbishop of York, alarmed at her religious opinions, refused to perform the ceremony of coronation, and the duty was discharged by the Bishop of Carlisle. (January 13, 1559.) There was, besides, a war going on with France and Scotland; the Treasury was empty, and the nation in debt. Elizabeth retained in her service many of the members of the late Government, but she added others with views like her own, and upon whom she could depend. Of these, Sir Nicholas Bacon, father of

the great Lord Bacon, and Sir William Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh, were the most distinguished. To Cecil's faithful service of forty years as First Minister of the Crown much of the glory of Elizabeth's reign is due. As there was enough to do at home, peace was made with France and Scotland.

One of the first acts of the queen was to recall the exiles and set free those imprisoned for religion. By proclamation she forbade preaching without a special license, and the elevation of the host; and granted the use of the Litany, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Gospels, in English. When Parliament met, early in 1559, the supremacy of the crown was restored, and religious matters were brought into the same state as they were under Edward VI. The second prayer-book of that king was revised and published; the forty-two articles of religion were reduced to thirty-nine, and a second book of homilies issued. The use of the English service-book was enforced by

1559 A.D. an Act of Uniformity, and a court of **High Commission** was formed for the management of Church matters.

The Act of Uniformity forbade all worship which was not in accordance with the Liturgy of the Church of England, under pain of forfeiting goods and chattels for the first offence, of a year's imprisonment for the second, and of imprisonment for life for the third. It also imposed a fine of one shilling on everyone that should absent himself from the Established Church on Sunday and holidays.

Thus the Reformation was again the law of England, and the work of Pole and Mary faded away. 'The nuns and monks were scattered once more, the crucifixes came down from the rood-lofts, the Maries and Johns from their niches, and in Smithfield market, at the crossways and street corners, blazed into bonfires, as in the old days of Cromwell.' Such was the way in which the Reformation was received in the great towns and seaports; but more than one-half the population, chiefly the rural portion, were still in favour of the superstitious usages of their forefathers.

These changes were not carried out without much opposition. The clergy in Convocation protested against the Act of Supremacy, and the bishops in the House of Lords argued against it with all their might. They also opposed the reformed faith in all its most important points. All the bishops, excepting the bishop of Llandaff, refused the oath of supremacy, and were, consequently deprived of their sees; but of the inferior clergy, amounting to about 10,000, only about 180 declined to submit to the new order of things.

Five of Edward's bishops outlived Mary's persecution. Four of these, among whom was the venerable Miles Coverdale, consecrated Matthew Parker Archbishop of Canterbury, and soon after, all the vacant sees were again filled up. For eleven years, the friends and the enemies of the Reformation met together for public worship in the same sacred building; but in 1570, Pope Pius V. excommunicated Elizabeth, and then those devoted to the Romish system withdrew from the English Church, and formed a distinct dissenting body, which is distinguished by the name **Roman Catholic.** The English Church, on the other hand, is sometimes called Protestant, in contradistinction to papal. For many years the Roman Catholic dissenters greatly troubled the Government by plotting to upset its authority, and they thus brought upon themselves very severe treatment. During Elizabeth's reign about 200 of them were put to death for treasonable practices.

The papists were not the only faction that troubled the National Church. During the Marian persecution, about 800 persons sought refuge in Germany and Switzerland, and there imbibed the views of the foreign Reformers. On the accession of Elizabeth, they returned to England bitterly opposed to everything that reminded them of the unreformed Church. They objected to the surplice, kneeling at the Communion, the sign of the cross in baptism, the use of sponsors, the ring in marriage, government by bishops, stained windows, organs, and chanting. They professed to aim at a purer form of worship, and,

on this account, were called **Puritans.** In 1566, they began to absent themselves from the parish churches, and hold their meetings in private houses. Many of the clergy adopted Puritan views, but for a time they were left unmolested. At length the Act of Uniformity was enforced with greater rigour, and those who refused to conform were deprived of their livings. Hence the Puritans received the name of Nonconformists. The queen disliked this party very much, though some of her most favoured counsellors secretly encouraged them. The law showed them no favour; they were fined, imprisoned, and exiled; but no severity could break their spirit. They increased so rapidly that before the death of Elizabeth they became a powerful and influential party in the House of Commons. The Puritans were distinguished by their love of civil liberty, and we owe much to their dogged opposition to undue regal power.

Mary Queen of Scots.

Mary Queen of Scots married the Dauphin of France, who became king in 1559. Scotland was then under the government of Mary of Guise, widow of James V., who maintained her authority by the help of French soldiers. The Queen of Scots, as the descendant of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII., was the next heir to the English throne; and on Elizabeth's accession she and her husband took the arms and title of Queen of England; thus denying Elizabeth's right. When Mary's husband became King of France, he still called himself King of England. Elizabeth, therefore, regarded him and his wife as her mortal enemies, against whom it was necessary to take guard. Scotland at this time was in a very disturbed state, on account of the Reformation movement, which had made great progress under John Knox. In that country the Reformers called themselves the 'Congregation of the Lord,' in contradistinction to the Established Church, which they called the 'Congregation of Satan.' Their cause became so powerful that the regent sought aid from France to suppress it. A civil war arose

in consequence, and the 'Lords of the Congregation,' as the nobles who joined the movement called themselves, applied to Elizabeth for help. Much as she disliked the Scotch Reformers, the necessity of crushing the French power in Scotland compelled her to assist them. An English fleet was sent to the Forth; the French shut themselves up in Leith, and were at last forced to surrender. A treaty was made at Edinburgh, by which the French were to leave the country, and the Queen and King of France and Scotland were to abstain from taking the arms or title of England. (July 6, 1560.) The Scotch then established the Presbyterian system of religion.

Mary's husband, Francis II., died the same year, and she returned to Scotland in 1561. Four years afterwards, she married her cousin, Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox, the next heir after Mary to the English crown. Elizabeth was much offended at this marriage. Darnley's character by no means corresponded to his handsome person. He was scarcely fit for his high position, and his weakness and vice made it necessary for his wife to treat him with some reserve. Enraged at this neglect, he vented his rage upon all in the queen's favour. Mary had a secretary, named David Rizzio, a Piedmontese by birth, the son of a music-teacher. Darnley became jealous of this man's influence, and formed a plan to put him to death. One evening, when the queen was supping in private with Rizzio and other servants, at Holyrood Palace, Darnley and some lords rushed into the chamber, dragged the secretary into an ante-room, and despatched him with fifty-six wounds. (1566.) For this cruel outrage and crime, Mary never forgave her husband. He threatened to leave the country, but was prevented by his wife's apparent reconciliation. About this time he became seriously ill, and was placed in a solitary house near Edinburgh, called the Kirk of Field, where he was attended by his queen. One night she retired to the palace of Holyrood, and shortly after, the citizens of Edinburgh were roused from sleep by a loud explosion. In the morning the house of Kirk of Field was found a heap of ruins, and some forty

yards away lay the body of Darnley, without any marks of fire or violence. (February 9, 1567.) The Earl of Bothwell, who was deep in Mary's confidence, was suspected of the murder; but he was too powerful to be brought to trial. Within a month, Bothwell carried off the queen to Dunbar, where they were married. The marriage of Mary with the man believed to be the murderer of her husband caused a burst of indignation throughout Scotland, and a confederacy was at once formed against her. At Carberry Hill, near Edinburgh, she was taken prisoner by the army of the confederacy, but Bothwell made good his escape to Dunbar, and thence fled to Denmark. Public opinion charged the queen with being a party to her husband's murder, and in Edinburgh her life was in danger. Imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, she was compelled to resign the crown in favour of her infant son, and to appoint her natural brother, the Earl of Murray, regent. Ten months afterwards, she escaped from confinement, and was soon at the head of 6,000 men; but the regent marched against her, and routed her forces at Langside, near Glasgow. (1568.) The defeated princess fled to the south, took boat at Galloway, and landed at Workington, in Cumberland.

Elizabeth was now in a difficulty. If she allowed the royal fugitive to leave the country, the Romanists would make her the centre of their plots against England; if she remained, Elizabeth could not be indifferent to the great crimes laid to her charge. It was therefore determined to keep her under restraint at Bolton Castle, and to open a court at York for her trial. Commissioners met for this purpose; proofs of guilt were strong, but the conference came to nothing decisive. Elizabeth and her Privy Council, however, were convinced of her guilt, and she was refused admission to the English court. She was placed under the care of the Earl of Shrewsbury at Tutbury, in Staffordshire, and afterwards removed to Sheffield Castle.

Conspiracies in favour of Mary Queen of Scots.

From the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, England was in danger from the plots of the great Roman Catholic powers. There was one source of safety in the jealousies that existed between France and Spain, and there was another in the spread of the Reformation on the Continent. In the Netherlands, Spain had its hands full in keeping down Protestantism, and France was torn by civil strife. In the latter country, Protestants, under the name of Huguenots, and Romanists were in open war. Elizabeth sided with the Huguenots, and their leader, the Prince of Condé, put Havre into her hands. (October 1562.) In the following year the civil war was brought to an end by the promise of toleration to all parties, and the English were driven out of Havre. The Romanists thought that, if Protestantism could be destroyed in England, it could easily be stamped out elsewhere; but Elizabeth was the great stumbling-block. If she could be removed, and a Roman Catholic be put in her place, success was certain. The next heir to the throne was Mary of Scotland, a Roman Catholic, and for her accession papists abroad and at home longed and plotted. Her misconduct in Scotland, however, put a stop for a time to the intrigues of her friends. The remembrance of her faults soon passed away, and she became once more the centre of Romanist conspiracies. In the year following her arrival in England a plot was set on foot by the Roman Catholic nobles to set her free, and to restore their religion by placing her on the throne. The Duke of Norfolk, though a Protestant, was involved in this conspiracy. It was proposed that he should marry Mary; but there were plots within plots, and so skilfully laid, that several of Elizabeth's Council encouraged the marriage, with the view of ruining Cecil, the chief minister of the crown. The conspiracy was detected, and the Duke of Norfolk was sent to the Tower. The earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland attempted to raise the northern counties, but on the appearance of

the royal forces they fled to Scotland. About
1569 A.D. 600 of their followers were strung up by martial law in the towns and villages of Yorkshire and Durham.

The Duke of Norfolk, on promises of good conduct, was soon set free. In the following year, Pope Pius V. issued a bull of excommunication against Elizabeth, and absolved her subjects from their oaths of allegiance. Deep-laid schemes were at once set on foot to dethrone her. Norfolk was to marry the Queen of Scots, the Spaniards, under the Duke of Alva, were to land at Harwich, and the whole country was to rise in arms. Mere chance revealed the conspiracy. A Shrewsbury merchant was about returning home from London, when one of Norfolk's servants asked him to take charge of a bag of silver, and deliver it to the duke's agent in Shropshire. The man consented; but on the way, the weight of the bag struck him as strange. He opened it, and found 600*l.* in gold, and a letter in cypher. He immediately returned, and gave the bag and its contents to Cecil, then Lord Burleigh. The
1572 A.D. clue of the plot was thus discovered. Norfolk, again sent to the Tower, was executed for high treason.

The Earl of Northumberland soon after fell into the power of Elizabeth, and met with a similar fate.

These summary measures checked for a time the treasonable practices of the Roman Catholic nobility. The next danger came from the plots of the Jesuits. With them nothing should stand in the way of papal triumph. Wholesale massacres and assassinations should remove the enemies of Rome. In Paris, on the feast of St. Bartholomew, 1572, 500 noblemen and gentlemen, and 10,000 of lower rank, were massacred in cold blood, because they were Huguenots. Other towns in France followed the cruel example, and thus Rome triumphed in blood, and returned thanks to God for so glorious a victory. After this, another champion of Protestantism, in the person of the Prince of Orange, was removed by assassination. Elizabeth alone remained to be destroyed. A Jesuit plot for her destruction and a Spanish

invasion of England was discovered by the capture of a vessel in the Channel having on board two Popish priests. (November 1584.) Papers on their person revealed the wicked design. Severe laws, in consequence, were immediately passed against the Jesuits. Members of this order and all popish priests were ordered to leave the kingdom within forty days. If found after that time, they were to suffer as traitors; and all persons who harboured them were to be hanged as felons. Several afterwards suffered for violation of this law.

In the year 1586, a priest named Ballard came to England in the disguise of a soldier, and set on foot another conspiracy for the murder of Elizabeth and the liberation of the Queen of Scots. The plot was eagerly joined by Anthony Babington, a young gentleman of Derbyshire, who found willing accomplices among several sworn servants of Elizabeth's court. Six of these were ready to kill their royal mistress whenever the signal should be given. A correspondence was carried on with the Scottish Queen at Chartley Manor, through a brewer of Burton, who supplied the household with ale. A water-tight box of wood, containing letters, was placed in the cask ordered for the use of Mary's ladies and secretaries. But Walsingham, Elizabeth's Secretary of State, was informed by his spies of all that was going on. The whole correspondence passed through his hands; and when the plot was ripe, the conspirators were immediately seized, and fourteen put to death.

It was resolved to put the Queen of Scots on her trial for her share in Babington's conspiracy. She was removed to Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, where a royal commission, consisting of peers and privy councillors, was sent to try her. At first she refused to acknowledge the authority of the court, but at last she consented to answer. She denied the charge of abetting the queen's murder. The evidence against her was strong: there were the confessions of Babington and her two private secretaries, and her own letters. The Commissioners met again in the Star Chamber at London, and there pronounced sentence of death against the Queen of Scots. (October 25, 1586.)

A Parliament was immediately summoned, the sentence against Mary was ratified, and a petition presented to Elizabeth for its execution. In the meantime, Henry III. of France, influenced by the papacy and the court of Spain, pleaded earnestly for the life of the condemned queen. Her son, James VI. of Scotland, was not so urgent; and his efforts to save his mother were not very active. Elizabeth hesitated for some months to sign the death-warrant. She knew that public interest required the execution of Mary, but she wished to escape the responsibility of her death. England was in a fever of excitement: rumours of conspiracies, treachery, and invasion were disturbing society to its depths; remonstrances were presented to Elizabeth concerning her hesitation. At length, she gave private orders to her secretary, Davidson, to draw up the warrant, which she signed, and sent to the Chancellor to receive the great seal. Next day she recalled her orders to Davidson; and on being told that the warrant had passed the Chancellor, she seemed greatly displeased. The Council then decided to trouble the queen no longer, and the warrant was soon on its way to Fotheringay, where the earls of Shrewsbury and Kent were to see it executed. A scaffold covered with black cloth was erected in the hall of the castle. About 300 knights and gentlemen of the county were admitted to witness the execution. At eight o'clock on a February morning, Mary Stuart, dressed in black satin, appeared on the scaffold. After a short time spent in devotion, her attendants removed the black robe; under the robe was a dress of crimson velvet; and then the unhappy queen stood out on the dark background blood-red from head to foot. The executioner did his work in two strokes. As the streaming head was held up to the spectators, the Dean of Peterborough exclaimed, 'So perish all enemies of the Queen!' 'Amen!' was the answer from those present. Thus perished Mary Queen of Scots, in the forty-fifth year of her age and the nineteenth of her captivity in England. The body was buried at Peterborough; but it was afterwards removed to Westminster Abbey by her son, James I.

Feb. 8, 1587 A.D.

The Spanish Armada.

Philip II. of Spain had long meditated the invasion of England. Not only as a papist was he enraged at the success of the English Reformation, but he was also grievously provoked by the attacks of English sailors on his treasure-ships, and by the aid Elizabeth gave to his rebellious subjects in the Low Countries. While English soldiers were fighting the Spaniards in the Netherlands, hardy sailors under Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake were scouring the seas in search of Spanish galleons. This was more than Philip could stand, and he determined to hurry on his preparations for the conquest of England. Francis Drake, one of the naval heroes of this reign, paid the coast of Spain a visit soon after the execution of the Queen of Scots. In Cadiz harbour, more than one hundred ships were burnt, and large quantities of stores destroyed. The damage done by Drake was soon repaired, and there was collected in the Tagus a fleet of which the world had never seen the like. Spain was roused to enthusiasm at the idea of crushing the heretical nation which had dared to defy its power. Every pulpit in the land proclaimed a crusade against England, and every noble family sent one or more of its sons to join so pious an undertaking. Confident of success, the Spaniards called their fleet the *Invincible Armada*. It consisted of 129 large fighting ships, armed with 2,430 cannon of brass and iron, and manned by 8,000 sailors. There were, besides, 19,000 soldiers, 1,000 gentlemen volunteers, 600 priests, servants, &c., and 2,000 galley slaves. The Duke of Medina-Sidonia was placed in command. The admiral sailed from the Tagus, May 29, 1588, with orders to proceed direct to Calais, to receive on board the Prince of Parma with an army of 30,000 men. Off Finisterre a storm dispersed the fleet, and it was obliged to put into Corunna to refit. The second attempt to sail was more successful, and in the month of July the Armada appeared off the Lizard.

To oppose this formidable armament, the English could

only muster 140 ships of very small size. Of these only 38 belonged to the royal navy; and there were only 13 of these above 400 tons burthen. The rest of the fleet consisted of merchantmen of all sorts and sizes, supplied by the seaports and nobility. Though the ships were small, they were manned by 14,000 daring sailors, and commanded by brave hearts. Lord Howard of Effingham was placed in chief command, and under him served Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher—the most renowned seamen in Europe. On land an army of 70,000 raw levies were collected together, but by no means a match for the disciplined

English War Ship and Spanish Galleon of the time.

troops of Spain. This army was arranged in three divisions; 20,000 men guarded the southern coast; a similar number was told off to oppose the landing, while 30,000 remained at Tilbury to protect London. Elizabeth did her best to encourage the troops. She appeared on horseback in the camp, and exhorted the men to remember their duty, saying that she, though a woman, would lead them to battle, and die rather than yield.

Lord Howard and Drake were in Plymouth Sound with 82 ships when the news came that the Spaniards were in the Channel. On the evening of July 19, beacons on the coast gave the signal that England's trial was at hand, and immediately men in every town and village were hurrying to their posts. On the following afternoon, the Armada was seen off Plymouth in the form of a crescent, about seven miles in extent. The English admiral at once made sail, and followed in its wake. His orders were to avoid coming to close quarters, and attack the enemy at a distance. The size of the English ships was favourable to these tactics. The high-towered Spanish galleons moved slowly on the water, and were utterly helpless to meet the attacks of a swift-sailing fleet. Before they could turn to fire a broadside, the sharp English craft were away out of range. The huge lofty hulks of the Spanish ships offered a sure mark to the enemy, and, at the same time, sent their own shot far too high. The Spaniards were astonished and confounded by the manœuvring and rapidity of fire. To every shot they sent, four were received in return. Flurried and surprised at such seamanship and artillery, they resolved to make the best of their way to Calais. For three days the pursuit continued up the Channel, the English daily increasing in numbers, and becoming more daring. Before Medina-Sidonia cast anchor off Calais, many a proud ship had been carried as prizes into English ports. While the Armada lay there, waiting for Parma's army, Lord Howard, one dark night, sent eight fire-ships amongst them. The Spaniards, in terror, cut their cables, and sailed out into the Channel, thinking to return to their anchorage in the morning. But they never saw their anchors again. The English ships were upon them with the light, and threw them into the wildest confusion. Driven in one upon the other, the Spanish vessels were utterly helpless. From morning to night they were torn and raked by the English guns; twelve ships were sunk or captured; the rest were rent and shattered, and only escaped total destruction by the failure of powder and shot

1588 A.D.

in the English fleet. The Spanish commander, driven into the North Sea, dared not face the foe again. Four thousand of his men were killed or drowned; the decks were crowded with wounded; his ships were pierced and torn in all directions, and there was nothing left but flight up the German Ocean. On they sailed to the north, pursued by the English as far as the Orkneys. Then storms and the dangers of unknown seas did their work of destruction, and completed the ruin of the proud Armada. Wrecks covered the coasts of Norway, Scotland, and Western Ireland. Between the Giant's Causeway and Blasket Sound, 8,000 shipwrecked Spaniards were either drowned, or murdered by the Irish. Only 54 vessels in all ever reached Spain, and scarcely 10,000 men survived to tell the tale of English valour, and of the violence of the sea that washes the coasts of Britain.

In the following year, an English squadron was sent to the coast of Spain under Drake and the Earl of Essex. The suburbs of Lisbon were captured, and the town of Vigo taken and burnt. In 1596, news came that Philip was preparing for a new invasion of England, when Effingham and Essex set sail for Spain, plundered Cadiz, and captured three ships of the rich Indian fleet. All real danger of invasion passed away with the destruction of the Armada, and England then began to take her place as mistress of the sea.

Rebellion in Ireland. Execution of the Earl of Essex.

After the Spanish quarrel had been settled, Elizabeth's attention was directed to Ireland. English authority was not very great in that country. The Irish never liked the rule of England. The success of the Reformation increased this feeling, and made the people more popish and hostile than ever. English adventurers attempted to form settlements in the country from time to time, but in most cases the enterprise, after much cruelty to the natives, ended in bloodshed and failure. The most powerful Irish leader was Hugh O'Neal. Elizabeth made him Earl of Tyrone, with a view of winning him over to her side. But the

earl loved independence and the liberty to do as he liked better than quiet submission to the Queen of England. He therefore fomented disturbances and rallied the Irish chieftains in his cause, and applied to the court of Spain for arms and help. At length he broke out into open rebellion, and defeated the English forces at Blackwater, leaving their commander and 1,500 men dead on the field. The Irish were in high glee at this success, and looked upon Tyrone as the deliverer of their country. 1598 A.D. The English Council, thinking it time to take vigorous measures, sent the Earl of Essex to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, with 18,000 men. In 1599, he landed in Dublin, but the campaign was spent in petty expeditions, and at the close, without having achieved anything, he found his army reduced to 4,000 men. Instead of crushing Tyrone, he began to negotiate with him. Elizabeth was indignant at the conduct of Essex, and ordered him to stop in Ireland till further orders. Fearing the queen's displeasure, he hurried to London to explain his conduct. He was coldly received, and committed to the custody of the lord-keeper. He soon regained his liberty, but not the queen's favour. He was forbidden the court, and the monopoly of sweet wines was taken from him. In vexation and despair, he spoke harshly of his royal mistress, and began to form conspiracies against her. He plotted to seize the palace, and compel the queen to dismiss her adviser, and settle a new plan of government. Relying upon the aid of the citizens of London, he sallied forth with about 200 attendants, and attempted to raise the City. The attempt ended in utter failure. He was brought to trial on the charge of high treason, and was beheaded in the Tower. It is said that his life might have been saved, if a ring, which had been given him by the queen to be used in any time of danger, had reached her hands. 1601 A.D. The ring was given to the Countess of Nottingham, to be forwarded to Elizabeth, but this lady, from malice, neglected to discharge her commission.

The rebellion in Ireland was suppressed in one campaign by Lord Mountjoy, the successor of Essex. A

Spanish expedition of forty-five ships arrived at Kinsale too late to be of any use, and was forced to surrender. Tyrone was pardoned, but his lands were taken from him. (1602.)

Death and Character of Elizabeth.

After the death of Essex, Elizabeth fell into a deep melancholy. She was so overwhelmed with grief as to refuse food, sitting for days and nights on the floor, without changing her clothes. Some thought that the execution of her favourite was the cause of her dejection, while others said it was the natural result of disease and old age. Her bodily and mental strength became weaker day by day. After expressing the wish that James VI. of Scotland should be her successor, she fell into a sleep of some hours, and died peacefully at Richmond, in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign. (March 24, 1603.)

Elizabeth's character was marked by many virtues. Her faults, too, were many; but as a queen, she has had few equals among the sovereigns of England. She was active, bold, and imperious; her temper was violent, and, in this respect, she resembled her father. Many of her acts were despotic, but she possessed the wisdom of avoiding quarrels with her parliaments. Vanity was one of her weak points. When old and wrinkled, she listened with pleasure to the flatteries of courtiers, and nothing pleased her better than a well-timed compliment from her seeming admirers. She deserves, however, all praise in the choice of her counsellors. To this wise selection it is owing that her reign forms one of the most brilliant periods in English history.

Miscellaneous Facts.

This reign is distinguished for its literature and its maritime enterprise. The persecution of Protestants on the Continent brought to England many refugees who, being skilful in art and manufacture, made great improvements in weaving, dyeing, and the dressing of cloth. Many places now began to give signs of future greatness. Birmingham and Sheffield

were already famous for hardware, and Leeds and Manchester were rising into importance as manufacturing towns. London grew so rapidly that a proclamation was issued forbidding any further building. In 1589, the stocking-frame was invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of Cambridge. Up to this time, people wore cloth hose. Silk stockings are said to have been first worn by Elizabeth. Tea was imported from China by the Dutch, and potatoes and tobacco were brought from America by Raleigh, Drake, or Hawkins. Pocket-watches came from Germany. The manufacture of paper from rags was begun at Dartford, in Kent. This reign is also distinguished for the first poor-law, the beginning of the African slave-trade, the establishment of the East India Company, and the colonisation of Virginia by Raleigh.

Lady's Costume of the period.

SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE TUDOR PERIOD.

Government. Food. Dress. Dwellings. Amusements. National Industry. Literature.

Government.—The government of the Tudors was more arbitrary than that of the Plantagenets. All the members of this house were distinguished for their courage and strong will; and, in consequence of these characteristics, they often overstepped the bounds of their rights, and invaded those of their subjects. But they had the wisdom to know when and where to stop. Though high-spirited and hot-tempered, they were discreet enough to avoid provoking the nation to dangerous opposition. The House of Commons increased in power in this period, especially towards its close. Under Henry VIII. the Commons grew in importance, though they were far from independent. Under Edward VI. they became bolder, and this spirit increased in the following reigns, till in Elizabeth's time they stoutly refused to the queen the right of granting monopolies, and compelled her to yield to their wishes. The parliaments of this period were, however, on the whole, very servile. Many of the peers were new creations, and therefore bound to the sovereign by ties of gratitude. Many of the House of Commons represented towns under the influence of the crown. During the reigns of the last three Tudors, ninety-eight pocket boroughs were created or restored, and from these places men entered Parliament to carry out and support the sovereign's wishes. Hence it is not difficult to account for the high-handed manner in which Parliament was often treated in this period.

Food.—The upper classes took breakfast at eight, dinner at twelve, and supper at six. Dinner, then as now, was

the chief meal, when large joints of beef and mutton, roast or boiled, and flagons of nut-brown ale, covered the table. Even court ladies commenced and ended the day with steaks and copious draughts of ale. The modern beverages of tea and coffee were then unknown. Meat and bread were presented upon the point of a knife, and fingers still did duty for forks. During the greater part of the year salt meat was used, on account of the scarcity of pasturage. People near the seacoast had the luxury of fresh fish, but those inland could not enjoy this privilege. The hat was generally worn at table.

While the rich were supplied with wheaten bread, the poorer classes were content with bread made of barley or rye, and, in times of scarcity, they were glad to get it made of beans, peas, or oats. In the reign of Henry VIII., beef and pork were a halfpenny a pound—mutton was three farthings. The butchers of London sold penny pieces of beef for the relief of the poor—every piece two pounds and a half, sometimes three pounds. Strong beer, such as is now sold at eighteenpence a gallon, was then a penny a gallon; and table-beer less than a halfpenny. French and German wines were eightpence the gallon; Spanish and Portuguese wines, a shilling.

Towards the close of the period, the use of tobacco became very general. A good dinner was incomplete without a pipe.

Dress.—Among the upper classes, fashions were continually changing. The sixteenth century is distinguished for the slashing style of dress—large gashes in the sleeve, through which the white linen was puffed out. These slits were tied with points, to prevent them opening too far. The hose, which formerly reached from the waist to the feet, was now separated into breeches and stockings. The usual dress of males was a close-fitting jacket, fastened round the waist by a belt. Over this hung a short cloak, which, in the case of rich men, was of bright-coloured velvet, superbly trimmed inside and out. Caps were of various shapes. They were ornamented with feathers and coloured bands. Gentlemen wore frills and ruffs of large

size. A rapier and dagger completed the costume. The lower classes wore tunics and leather smallclothes. The hair was cut short and curled, or set up on end; the beard was long and pointed. The dress of the yeomen of the queen's guard gives a very good idea of the costume of this period. The boys of Christ's Hospital School still wear the style of dress of the Tudor age.

The most remarkable change in female costume was the introduction of the hoop, or farthingale, from Spain, for spreading the skirts. Another new fashion was the use of enormous ruffs of linen or cambric, which were first held out by pieces of wood or ivory, but in Elizabeth's time they were stiffened with starch introduced from Flanders. These ruffs increased to such a size that Elizabeth ordered persons to be stationed in London to cut down those exceeding a certain height. Headdresses were of various shapes, and completely covered the hair, like a hood. False hair was fashionable with ladies, and at the close of the period red was the fashionable colour. Pearls were worn as ear-drops, and for necklaces. Worsted stockings were first made in the time of Elizabeth, and soon took the place of cloth hose. A pair of silk stockings was considered worth presenting to the 'Maiden Queen.' A fashionable lady seldom moved abroad without a pocket looking-glass, or mirror, which she usually carried dangling at her side or set in her fan.

Dwellings.—As the country settled down into peace and order, the residences of the nobility underwent a great change. Houses lost their military character, and the castle became a palace, or hall, or manor-house. They were quadrangular in shape, and contained large halls, long corridors with galleries above, and broad bay windows filled with glass. They had many gables, and ornamental groups of chimneys. The castle moat and loop-holed walls gave way to lawns, shrubberies, terraces, and avenues of stately trees. In the latter part of the period, the Gothic style of building became intermixed with the Italian, and received the name Elizabethan. The hall now served as an entrance, from which richly-decorated staircases led to

the corridors above. Brick and stone were commonly used for large buildings, though town-houses continued to be built chiefly of wood. Their fronts were elaborately carved, the upper stories projecting. In these dwellings, glass-windows were still uncommon; and when used, they were not made to open—ventilation, therefore, was bad. The poor still lived in houses made of wattles, plastered over with mud.

Chimneys were now in general use in better-class houses.

Furniture was still of a simple character. The floor was matted, or covered with rushes. Towards the close of the period carpets came into use, but chiefly as table-cloths. Bedding also improved. The straw pallet and coarse rug or sheet gave way to beds of down, woollen blankets, and linen sheets. The lower classes slept upon rough mats, or straw, with a log for a pillow; and if a man could get a flock bed with a pillow of chaff, he thought himself as lucky as a lord. Furniture was so scanty, that the nobility usually carried it about with them when they came to town. Before the time of Elizabeth, dishes and spoons were made of wood; these were superseded by pewter plates and tin spoons. Tapestry was still used to cover the walls of rooms.

Amusements.—All the old sports were still in vogue, excepting the tournament and hawking. Hunting was thoroughly enjoyed by both sexes. Bull and bear-baiting were favourite pastimes of the upper classes. The animal was fastened in an open space, and set upon by English bull-dogs. The highest ladies in the land delighted in this sport; with Elizabeth it was an especial favourite. Horse-racing commenced as a regular amusement; but, as it was free from gambling, it was greatly encouraged, to improve the breed of horses. The favourite country sports were archery, foot-races, and various games of ball. At the beginning of this period, particular attention was given to archery. All males, excepting the clergy and judges, between the ages of seven and sixty, were required by law to practise the bow at the village butts. The improvement

of fire-arms, however, soon made the bow and arrow things of the past.

Gorgeous pageants frequently enlivened the court and the mansions of the great. When Queen Elizabeth visited the Earl of Leicester at Kenilworth Castle, pageants of the most splendid description were given in her honour.

Among in-door amusements, music and dancing were the most refined. The most common musical instruments were the cittern—a kind of guitar—the lute, and the virginals—the original of the modern pianoforte. Dancing was the delight of all classes; courtiers tripped their measures in torch-lighted halls, and country lads and lasses on the village-green. Other amusements were chess, dice, cards, and tables (now called backgammon).

The drama took its rise in this period. The mystery plays of the fifteenth century were followed by allegories, popular legends, and stories of English history. These performances were first held in booths and tents, with imperfect costume. Regular theatres were built in the reign of Elizabeth, but the stage, scenery, and dress were still rude. The performance usually began at one o'clock, and then a flag fluttered over the theatre during the continuance of the play. Women's part in the performance was taken by boys. Spectators of the better class sat on stools on the stage, and regaled themselves with ale and tobacco, while the common people sat in the pit, imitating the example of their betters.

Church festivals and holidays were the favourite seasons for rustic sport and jollity, and on these occasions great licence was often taken. Christmas, with its yule-log and boar's head, when high and low feasted and made merry together in the great hall, was a joyous time. Every one went a-mumming; those who could not get a mask sooted their faces. Every parish had its Lord of Misrule, who went about attended by mischief-loving rustics, decked out in gay scarfs and ribbons, or disguised in the skins of animals. May-day, with its pole on the village-green, where rustics danced and sported, was another season of merriment. Pageants and the morris-dance were associated

with the May sports. Robin Hood and his famous Sherwood band were the favourite characters acted on these occasions. Another great festival was that of Midsummer-eve. Then bonfires blazed in every town and village, and the young played and danced round them far into the night.

National Industry.—This period is famous for its spirit of enterprise. To the sixteenth century we owe the rise of the royal navy and mercantile marine, and the foundation of our colonial empire. Henry VII. greatly encouraged trade, and made several commercial treaties with foreign countries. The discovery of America and the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope excited everywhere a spirit of enterprise and activity. In England the old Viking spirit revived, and men, brave and bold, went out on the sea to seek their fortunes, as in the days of Guthrum and Hastings. Henry VIII. established the royal navy. He built numerous war-ships, captured others from the Scots, and prepared harbours for their accommodation. Besides this, he established a Navy Office, and founded the Trinity House for the improvement of home navigation. But the royal navy made no progress under Edward VI. and Mary, though a slight improvement is observed under Elizabeth. Henry VIII. left a navy amounting in tonnage to 12,455 tons; at the end of the reign of Elizabeth, it amounted to 17,110 tons. The largest ships measured 1,000 tons, and carried 340 men and 40 cannon. In time of war the royal fleet was increased from the merchant service, but vessels of this class were very small. The largest merchantman which sailed from the port of London was no bigger than a modern collier brig.

England had some share in the maritime enterprises of the age. In 1497 John Cabot, the Venetian, with his son Sebastian, sailed from Bristol to discover a north-west passage to India. He struck the American continent at Nova Scotia, sailed up the Greenland Sea till stopped by the ice, and then coasted down to Florida, a year before Columbus discovered the mainland of America. In 1530, Mr. William Hawkins sailed for the coast of Guinea, where

he shipped gold-dust and ivory, and then crossed the Atlantic to Brazil. The chief of the latter country came back with him to England, but died on the return voyage. The Reformation was beneficial to commercial enterprise. Men's energies increased as superstition decayed. Side by side with the change of religion English commerce made rapid strides. The Company of Merchant Adventurers, established in London, sent their ships to the Levant, explored the Baltic, and had their factors at Novogorod. In 1553, Sir Hugh Willoughby sailed into the Arctic Ocean to find a passage to India, and perished in the ice. In the same year, John Lok, an Englishman, visited the coast of Guinea, and commenced the African slave-trade by kidnapping five of the natives. These, however, were afterwards restored; but in 1562, Sir John Hawkins recommenced the traffic in earnest. Sir Francis Drake was the first Englishman who sailed round the world—a Portuguese named Magellan first accomplished this feat, Drake has the honour of being second. Martin Frobisher explored the Arctic Ocean, and Sir Walter Raleigh made the first attempt at colonising the American coast.

The number of vessels employed in honest trade was small. In the first half of Elizabeth's reign, the burthen of all the merchantmen engaged in ordinary commerce scarcely amounted to 50,000 tons. Piracy, or buccaneering, was more profitable, and too tempting to be resisted. The maritime discoveries of the age enticed daring men abroad to seek their fortune, and, as the times were very unsettled, they were not very particular about the means. A Spanish gold-laden ship, or a richly-freighted Flemish trader, was a prize too good to be missed; and, as Spain was the home of the Inquisition, and the enemy of the Reformation, a Protestant Englishman regarded a Spanish vessel as his natural prey. Hence the Channel swarmed with pirate craft.

Trade increased with the spirit of enterprise, and with the increase of trade there came an increase of population. At the close of the period the population of England amounted to 5,000,000. London increased from 50,000

to 150,000. The towns next in importance were Bristol and Norwich. Some of the old towns fell into decay, while others, as Manchester and Birmingham, began to rise in importance. Liverpool, now the second town in the kingdom, was then an insignificant place, having only about 150 householders, 12 small vessels, and 75 sailors. Wool, woollen cloths, and fustians, chiefly comprised the home trade of England. Goods from India, Persia, Turkey, Russia, and the New World, were imported in large quantities. The establishment of the East India Company, in 1600, is an evidence of the increase of trade and mercantile activity under Elizabeth.

The wages of artificers and labourers increased in this period. A carpenter, mason, &c. who in 1495 received from 5*d.* to 6*d.* a day, was paid 1*s.* 2*d.* in 1601. Money, however, was less in value, but, on the whole, there was great improvement in the condition of the working classes.

Condition of the Country.—Times of change are also times of hardship to many. Beggary and robbery prevailed to an alarming extent in the first half of the sixteenth century, though they were bad enough before. Edward III. and Richard II. made laws to suppress the numerous beggars of their day. Henry VIII. tried to check the evil in his reign. No one was permitted to beg without a license. Sturdy and valiant beggars were to be whipped through the town at the cart's tail; for the second offence they should lose the right ear, and for the third offence they should suffer death as felons. Scholars of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were allowed to beg by permission of the authorities of those institutions. During the first half of the sixteenth century, executions were very common. Gibbets with dangling felons were familiar sights in the highways and market-places. Under Henry VIII. 72,000 persons were put to death as thieves and vagabonds; in the reign of Elizabeth, the number decreased to 300 or 400 a year. The government of the time acted upon the belief that it was better for 'a man not to live at all than to live a profitless and worthless life.'

The public roads at this period were in a wretched state.

Travelling, in consequence, was rarely undertaken, except by the higher classes, or men compelled by business, and then it was always done on horseback. Carriages were not known till Mary's reign, and the badness of the roads prevented their use. Ladies rode on a pillion, behind their servants. A riding waggon, without springs, was introduced in Mary's reign, but its jolting received little favour. In 1564, a coach with springs was brought from Holland, which excited much curiosity and astonishment. 'Some said it was a great crab-shell, brought from China, and some imagined it to be one of the pagan temples in which the cannibals adored the devil.' Vehicles of this kind came into use as far as the roads permitted. Communication between one part of the country and another was not very frequent. There was no system of postage, and letters had to be sent by special messengers or chance opportunities.

Learning and Literature.—The capture of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, drove many learned Greeks to the West of Europe. These exiles, by teaching and writing, drew men's attention to the ancient languages, and created a taste for their study. The desire thus implanted of studying Greek and Latin has caused the period to be distinguished as the Revival of Learning. The thirst for knowledge spread everywhere; on the Continent, nearly forty universities were established, and in England many colleges and schools were founded. The fruits of this revival began to be felt in England in the sixteenth century. The knowledge of Greek enabled students to read the New Testament in the original language, and assisted the progress of the Reformation. On this account, the Greek Scriptures and Greek literature generally encountered much opposition; the 'new learning' and new opinions often went together, so much so that the Reformers were distinguished as 'men of the new learning.' It became fashionable at court to study the ancient languages. All the Tudor sovereigns, excepting Henry VII., were scholars. Henry VIII. spoke four languages, and was well read in theology and history. Elizabeth knew not only Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian, but also Greek thoroughly.

Lady Jane Grey's last gift of a Greek Bible to her sister shows what her studies were. The old-fashioned people, however, who were content to run in the same groove as their fathers, looked suspiciously upon the educational movement. Knowledge, they thought, led men into heresy, and therefore it was better to remain in ignorance. So strong was this feeling in some quarters that, as late as the reign of Edward VI., there were peers of Parliament unable to read.

This period is famous for the number of colleges and schools founded in England. Sixteen colleges in all were established at Oxford and Cambridge, and St. Paul's School, London, Christ's Hospital, Westminster School, and Rugby, besides very many others of lesser note, took their rise. All these educational establishments were intended for the poorer classes. The Universities were attended by the sons of yeomen, and poor deserving scholars were allowed to maintain themselves by begging. The rich engaged a tutor to teach their children at home.

The old superstitions still exercised their influence, in spite of the zeal for knowledge and the spread of learning. The delusions of witchcraft, astrology, and alchymy, were thoroughly believed and trusted by all classes. Sudden sicknesses, plagues, storms, and accidents were ascribed to the tricks of witchcraft, and popular suspicion generally singled out some poor helpless old woman as the witch of the district. By astrology men pretended to foretell events by the stars. They were consulted by the highest in the land; even Elizabeth put faith in their sayings. Alchymy had for its object the discovery of the *philosopher's stone* and *the elixir of life.* The first was an imaginary substance, which could change all metals into gold; and the last was a liquid which could give life and beauty. These superstitions and pursuits, though profitless to the men of that day, have been beneficial to us. Witchcraft increased the knowledge of drugs and plants, so useful in medicine and the arts; astrology laid the foundation of the noble science of astronomy; and alchymy paved the way for the truths of chemistry.

The language spoken and written in England under the first four Tudors was called *Middle English.* In the reign of Elizabeth, *Modern English* took its rise. Under the former, there was scarcely an English poet of any note; but the impulse given by Chaucer began to be felt in Scotland, and the poet Dunbar was enriching his language with compositions worthy of any age. During the reign of Elizabeth, English literature burst forth in such splendour as to make the Elizabethan period the most illustrious in literary annals. The new learning then brought forth its fruits, and showed what the human intellect could do when freed from the bonds of bigotry and superstition. 'The majesty of English prose was formed by the hand of Hooker; the harmony of English verse flowed from the lips of Spenser. The drama had then its first beginnings, and was perfected by the immortal genius of Shakespeare; whilst Bacon opened up a new method of philosophy, whose practical fruits we may be said even now to gather.'

Leading Authors of the Tudor Period.

MIDDLE ENGLISH.

SIR THOMAS MORE (1480–1535), Lord Chancellor after Wolsey: a prose writer. Chief works: 'Utopia,' a fanciful scheme of government; 'The History of Edward V. and Richard III.' Beheaded by Henry VIII.

HENRY HOWARD (1516–1547), Earl of Surrey: poet; introduced the Sonnet from Italy. The first English writer of blank verse; refined the rude style of English poetry; wrote some sonnets, and a translation of part of Virgil's Æneid. Beheaded by Henry VIII.

WILLIAM DUNBAR, a poet: flourished about 1500–1513; called the Chaucer of Scotland. Chief poem: 'The Thistle and the Rose,' written to commemorate the marriage of James IV. and Margaret Tudor.

GAWIN DOUGLAS, Bishop of Dunkeld: a poet; flourished about 1510 A.D. The first translator into English of Virgil's Æneid; wrote two allegories, 'King Hart' and the 'Palace of Honour.'

WILLIAM TYNDALE (1485–1536), one of the earliest English Reformers: translated the Bible. Burnt as a heretic in Flanders.

MILES COVERDALE (1499–1580), Bishop of Exeter: translated the whole Bible into English.

ROGER ASCHAM (1515–1568), a student at Cambridge: Latin secretary to Edward VI.; tutor to Queen Elizabeth; author of 'Toxophilus' and the 'Schoolmaster.'

MODERN ENGLISH.

SIR PHILIP SIDNEY (1554–1586): wrote pastoral poetry and prose. Chief work in poetry, 'Arcadia;' in prose, 'The Defence of Poesy.' Killed at the battle of Zutphen, in the Netherlands.

EDMUND SPENSER (1553–1598), the second great English poet. Chief work: 'The Faerie Queen,' an allegorical poem describing the chief virtues personified by knights of romance; each verse is written in a peculiar stanza of nine lines, now called the 'Spenserian.'

CHRISTOPHER MARLOWE (1562–1593), the greatest dramatist before Shakespeare: wrote several plays; the chief are 'Doctor Faustus' and 'The Jew of Malta.' Killed in a tavern scuffle.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564–1616), the greatest name in English literature: born at Stratford-on-Avon; wrote, besides sonnets, thirty-five plays—tragedies, comedies, and historical dramas.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH (1552–1618): wrote poems in early years; imprisoned twelve years in the Tower by James I., during which time he wrote 'The History of the World' down to about 70 B.C.

RICHARD HOOKER (1553–1600), a divine, educated at Oxford: author of the 'Book of Ecclesiastical Polity,' a learned work in defence of the ceremonies, &c. of the Church of England.

FRANCIS BACON (1561–1627), Lord Chancellor under James I., a great philosopher: author of the 'Advancement of Learning,' the 'Instauration of the Sciences,' 'Novum Organum,' &c.

The fellow-labourers of Shakespeare in dramatic literature, Ben Jonson, Beaumont, Fletcher, and Massinger, will be mentioned in the Stuart Period.

There were no English artists of any note at this time. A German, **Hans Holbein**, was much patronised by the Tudors. In Italy, about the beginning of the sixteenth century, there flourished the great painters **Leonardo da Vinci**, **Raphael**, and **Titian**; and in Germany, **Albert Dürer**.

LEADING DATES OF THE TUDOR PERIOD.

GENERAL EVENTS.

	A.D.	
Lambert Simnel	1487	Henry VII.
Perkin Warbeck	1492	„
Discovery of Bahama Islands by Columbus	1492	„
Discovery of Mainland of America by Cabot	1497	„
Wolsey made Cardinal	1515	Henry VIII.
Field of the Cloth of Gold	1520	„
Henry VIII. made 'Defender of the Faith'	1521	„
Death of Wolsey	1530	„
Divorce of Catherine of Arragon	1533	„
Execution of Bishop Fisher and Sir T. More	1535	„
Wales represented in the English Parliament	1536	„
The Pilgrimage of Grace	1536	„
Execution of Anne Boleyn	1536	„
Execution of Thomas Cromwell	1540	„
Execution of Catherine Howard	1542	„
Execution of Earl Surrey	1547	„
Ket's Rebellion	1549	Edward VI.
Duke of Somerset beheaded	1552	„
Wyatt's Rebellion	1554	Mary I.
Burning of Cranmer	1556	„
Execution of the Duke of Norfolk	1572	Elizabeth.
Massacre of St. Bartholomew	1572	„
Mary Stuart executed	1587	„
Irish Rebellion	1599	„
Charter granted to East India Company	1600	„
Execution of Earl of Essex	1601	„

CHANGES OF DOMINION.

Tournay taken and restored	1513–18	Henry VIII.
Boulogne „ „	1544–50	„ and Edward VI.
Loss of Calais	1558	Mary I.
Havre taken and lost	1562–3	Elizabeth.
Virginia first Colonised by Raleigh	1584	„

WARS, BATTLES.

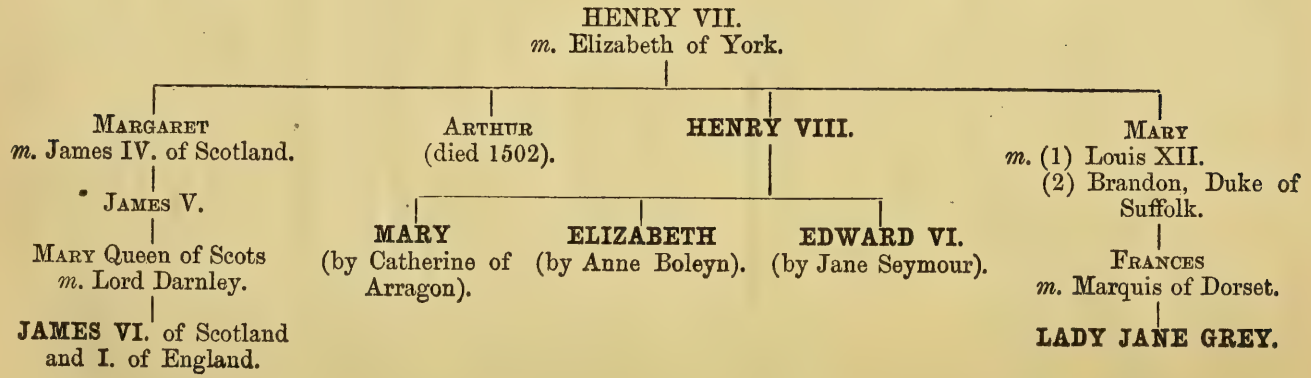
	A.D.	
Battle of Stoke	1487	Henry VII.
,, Spurs	1513	Henry VIII.
,, Flodden	1513	,,
The Rout of Solway	1542	,,
Battle of Pinkie	1547	Edward VI.
,, St. Quentin	1557	Mary I.
Armada Defeated	1588	Elizabeth.
Battle of Blackwater	1598	,,

THE REFORMATION.

IN GERMANY	Luther opposes the Sale of Indulgences	1517	Henry VIII.
	Luther burns the Pope's Bull	1520	,,
	German Reformers first called Protestants	1529	,,
IN ENGLAND	Divorce of Queen Catherine	1533	,,
	Papal Power overthrown	1534	,,
	Smaller Monasteries suppressed	1535-6	,,
	Coverdale's Bible published	1535	,,
	Matthew's Bible	1537	,,
	Cranmer's Bible ordered to be placed in Churches	1539	,,
	Greater Monasteries suppressed	1539	,,
	The 'Six Articles'	1539	,,
	The Litany translated into English	1544	,,
	Forms of Morning and Evening Prayer in English	1545	,,
	First Book of Common Prayer published	1549	Edward VI.
	Second Book of Common Prayer	1552	,,
	Papal Power restored	1554	Mary I.
	Marian Persecution	1555-8	,,
	The Reformation completed	1559	Elizabeth.
	The Romanists separate from the Church of England	1570	,,

GENEALOGICAL TABLE

CONNECTING THE TUDORS AND STUARTS.



STUART PERIOD.

From 1603 A.D. to 1714 A.D.—111 Years. 6 Sovereigns.

	A.D.
JAMES (son of Mary Queen of Scots)	1603
CHARLES I. (son)	1625
THE COMMONWEALTH	1649
CHARLES II. (son of Charles I.)	1660
JAMES II. (brother)	1685
WILLIAM III. (nephew) and **MARY II.** (daughter)	1689
WILLIAM III. sole ruler	1694
ANNE (daughter of James II.)	1702–14

JAMES I.

Born 1566 A.D. Began to Reign 1603 A.D. Died 1625 A.D.

Accession of James.
Main and Bye Plots.
Hampton Court Conference.
Gunpowder Plot.
The King's Favourites.
Proposed Spanish Match.
Disputes with the House of Commons.
Founding of Colonies.
Death and Character of James.

Miscellaneous Events.

Accession of James.

James I. of England, and VI. of Scotland, ascended the English throne as the great-grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. The people of England received the proclamation of his accession with favour, and looked hopefully upon the union of the two crowns. James set out from Edinburgh in the beginning of April, and arrived in London about six weeks afterwards. At every stage of his progress the people flocked together in great numbers

to welcome their new sovereign. They were greatly disappointed with his appearance and manners; and by the time he reached the capital, much of his popularity had waned. His awkward, slovenly person, his coarse and vulgar manners, created a very unfavourable impression. James was anxious to please his new subjects; and to secure their good-will, he bestowed knighthoods upon no less than 237 persons in the first six weeks of his reign. So lavish was he of these titles, that within three years 700 knights were created. His partiality, however, to the numerous Scotch courtiers who accompanied him into England caused much jealousy amongst the English.

James and his queen, Anne of Denmark, were crowned at Westminster, July 25, 1603, and the title of King of Great Britain and Ireland was now proclaimed for the first time. James wisely left the chief offices of government in the hands of Elizabeth's ministers. Among these was Secretary Cecil, son of the great Lord Burleigh, whom the king created Earl of Salisbury, and retained as his chief adviser. Several Scottish lords, however, were placed on the English Council.

Main and Bye Plots.

At the time of James's accession, the English nation was divided into three parties—the Church of England, or Episcopalians, the Romanists, and the Puritans. Each of these expected particular favour from the king. The Romanists thought that the son of Mary Stuart would have a kindly eye for the members of his mother's communion; and the Puritans hoped that a king educated amongst Presbyterians would be favourably disposed to their views. James, believing that episcopacy and monarchy must stand or fall together, warmly supported the Established Church, and expressed his intention of setting up the same form of religion in all his dominions. There was, therefore, much discontent in the kingdom, which dissatisfied persons tried to turn to account for their own interests.

In the first year of the reign two plots were set on foot, which became mixed together, though their objects were different. Sir Walter Raleigh, the lords Cobham and Grey, and the Earl of Northumberland, dissatisfied with the new government, conspired to place on the throne the Lady Arabella Stuart, a descendant of Henry VII., and cousin of the king. This plot was called the **Main**, to distinguish it from the other, called the **Bye**. The latter was a conspiracy of some Puritans and Romanists to seize the king's person, for the purpose of obtaining a government favourable to religious toleration. The conspirators were arrested; three of the Bye suffered death, and others were banished. Raleigh, Cobham, and Grey were also condemned. Raleigh was imprisoned in the Tower for thirteen years, where he wrote his 'History of the World.' He was then released to go in search of a rich gold mine in Guiana. Failing in this enterprise, he was executed upon his return to England, on the sentence passed upon him fifteen years before. (October 29, 1618.) James is said to have ordered this execution to please the Spaniards, with whom he was then negotiating for a marriage between his son Prince Charles and the Infanta of Spain.

Hampton Court Conference.

The Puritans had given much trouble in the late reign. They wanted the Reformation to proceed much further, and they objected to many things in the Book of Common Prayer. So violent were some of their leaders, and so intemperate were many of their publications, as to bring down upon the offenders the vengeance of the government, and under Elizabeth some of them were even sent to the scaffold. From James they expected favour; and shortly after his accession they presented him with a petition, called the **Millenary Petition**, because they thought a thousand names would be attached to it. This petition was signed by 825 clergymen. They begged him to use his influence to settle the points in dispute between them

and the Established Church. The king, therefore, appointed a conference to be held at Hampton Court. Four leading divines of the Puritan party and sixteen of the established Church assembled to discuss the points of difference. James acted as moderator, and took a leading part in the debates, frequently saying, '*No bishop, no king!*' Three meetings were held, during which objection was taken on the part of the Puritans to the use of the cross in baptism, the ring in marriage, the surplice, and the bowing at the name of Jesus. The results of the conference were: a slight alteration in the Book of Common Prayer; the addition of the part on the sacraments to the Catechism; and an arrangement for a new translation of the Bible. On this latter work forty-seven ministers were engaged for three years. It was finished in 1611, and printed in the Roman character. Nearly all the previous translations were printed in Old English.

1604 A.D.

Gunpowder Plot.

Contrary to the expectations of the Roman Catholics, James determined to enforce the laws passed against them in the last reign. Disappointed and enraged, they resolved to take a terrible revenge. Robert Catesby, a man of good family, suggested the plan of blowing up King, Lords, and Commons by gunpowder. He told his plan to his friends Percy, Winter, and Wright, who warmly approved of the design. Guy Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service, whose zeal and courage could be depended on, was brought from Flanders to carry out the project. The plot was told to several others, of whom Sir Everard Digby was the chief, till about twenty persons in all joined the scheme. They bound themselves to secrecy by a most solemn oath, and by partaking together the sacrament of the Lord's Supper. In the summer of 1604, the conspirators hired a house next the House of Parliament, and soon pierced the cellar wall. To their surprise, they found under the House of Lords a vault, which was used as a coal magazine.

This they at once hired, and in it placed thirty-six barrels of gunpowder. Coals, faggots, and billets were placed over these; and the cellar doors were boldly thrown open, as if nothing was the matter. Nearly a year and a half had passed since the commencement of the plot, and the dreadful secret was well kept. Parliament was to be opened by the king on November 5, 1605, and success seemed certain. The conspirators, therefore, completed their plans. Digby and others agreed to meet, on the pretence of a hunting match, in the neighbourhood of Dunchurch, in Warwickshire, where the Princess Elizabeth was staying, seize her person, and proclaim her queen. But in the meantime, Lord Monteagle, a Roman Catholic peer, received a letter warning him not to attend the opening of Parliament. The mysterious words were: '*They will receive a terrible blow this Parliament, and yet they shall not see who hurts them.*' The letter was laid before the king, who, remembering his father's fate, at once guessed that gunpowder was to give the blow. The vaults under the House of Lords were searched on the night before the day of assembling, and there Guy Fawkes was found with everything ready to fire the train. Digby and his friends were already in arms in Warwickshire when news came that all was discovered. They immediately fled to Holbeach, in Staffordshire, where they were soon pursued and attacked. Percy and Catesby were killed at one shot; others were cut to pieces; but the chief conspirators were taken prisoners and executed. Garnett, the Jesuit, who was party to the plot, also perished on the scaffold. The people were furious at the conspiracy, and laws of the severest kind were passed against Romanists.

1605 A.D.

The King's Favourites. Proposed Spanish Match.

One great weakness in the character of James was his fondness for favourites. The first of these was a Scotchman named Robert Carr, a youth of good family, who came to London about the year 1609. At a tilting match

in the presence of the king, he chanced to break his leg, and being a handsome youth, he obtained the king's pity and interest, and was ordered to be lodged in the palace. James became deeply attached to him. He knighted him; and afterwards conferred upon him the titles of Viscount Rochester and Earl of Somerset. In the height of his greatness he, contrary to the advice of his friend and secretary Sir Thomas Overbury, married the divorced wife of the young Earl of Essex. The countess never forgave Overbury for this. On her suggestion, he was sent to the Tower for some trifling offence, and after a few months he was despatched by poison. The murder was discovered, and all the parties to it were condemned. The tools in the crime were executed, but Somerset and his wife were kept in the Tower. After a few years' imprisonment, the unhappy pair obtained their freedom, and spent the rest of their days in obscurity and disgrace.

The king's second favourite was George Villiers, better known as the Duke of Buckingham, the son of a Leicestershire knight. He became the first noble in the land, and ruled the king and court just as he pleased. All the principal offices of State were filled with his creatures, much to the disgust of the nation. The troubles of the following reign were due in a great measure to his influence.

Towards the close of this reign the **Thirty Years' War** broke out on the Continent. (1619–1648.) Its immediate cause was a dispute about the crown of Bohemia. Ferdinand II. of Austria claimed the kingdom of Bohemia by right of inheritance, but the Bohemians, having heartily embraced the Reformation, and anxious for a prince of their own faith, offered the crown to Frederick, the Elector Palatine of the Rhine, who had married Elizabeth, the daughter of James I. As the quarrel was a religious one, all the Roman Catholic powers supported Ferdinand, while the leading Protestant States sided with the Elector. The Austrians succeeded in driving Frederick out of Prague (1620), and he was forced to fly for his life to Holland, while his electorate lay at the mercy of his enemies. James did nothing to help his son-

in-law, except allowing some volunteers to take arms in defence of the palatinate. Instead of joining the Protestant confederacy, he hoped to assist the Elector to recover his dominions by forming a marriage between Charles Prince of Wales and the Infanta of Spain. The English nation was averse to the union, and preferred war to such an alliance; but James was obstinate. While the negotiations for the match were going on, Buckingham and Prince Charles visited the court of Spain in disguise, under the names of Smith. The prince was received with the highest respect, but Buckingham's arrogant conduct and dissolute manners greatly offended the Spanish court. Returning home through Paris, Prince Charles fell in love with Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII. This, and Buckingham's quarrel with the nobles of Madrid, were the means of breaking off the Spanish match. The Parliament was delighted with the new turn of affairs, and the people praised Buckingham for his share in the matter. War with Spain was the result of these changes. In the last year of the reign, James sent an army of 12,000 men to assist his son-in-law, but the expedition was managed so badly that one-half the men died before reaching the Continent, and the other half was too weak to do anything. The Thirty Years' War was brought to an end by the Peace of Westphalia, which restored to the Elector the greater part of the Palatinate.

Disputes with the House of Commons.

The disputes between the House of Commons and the king, which ended so tragically in the following reign, began under James I. We have seen that the power of the Tudor sovereigns was greater than that of the Plantagenets, but James ascended the English throne just at a time when the voice of the people began to make itself heard in vindication of their rights. The new king intended to rule with absolute authority. He was possessed with the idea of the divine right of kings, and thought it sedition for anyone to question the extent of his power.

Such opinions provoked the spirit of the House of Commons. In the first Parliament of this reign, they told the king plainly that no laws could be made or altered in any way without their consent.

James's *second* Parliament went a step further. The Commons complained of his exactions without their authority, and refused to grant him supplies of money till all their grievances were redressed. (1614). This is one of the earliest examples of the exercise of a power which in the course of time made the Lower House supreme. James would not submit to this. He thought he had a right to his subjects' money without the pother of applying to Parliament. He therefore tried to raise a suitable revenue by making use of the old feudal customs. Monopolies were increased, places and titles were sold, purveyance and wardship were unduly exercised. The unpopularity caused by these acts was further increased by the proposal to marry the Prince of Wales to a Papist. The third Parliament was loud in its complaints; and when the king said they had no right to meddle in affairs of State, and only owed their privileges to the grace of his ancestors and himself, the House of Commons drew up a protest, in which it was declared that 'freedom of speech and the privileges of Parliament are the undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England.' James in a passion sent for the journals of the House, and with his own hands tore out this spirited protest. The Commons were as determined as the king, and the last Parliament won a victory over the royal authority by passing an Act making monopolies unlawful. During this reign they also revived the custom of accusing public offenders before the House of Lords. Lord Chancellor Bacon and the Lord Treasurer were thus tried and fined for corruption in their office.

The Founding of Colonies. Death and Character of James.

The foundation of our colonial empire was laid in this reign. In 1607, about one hundred Englishmen landed at

Jamestown, in Virginia. Raleigh's settlement on the same coast in Elizabeth's time had been abandoned. In 1610, a charter was granted for the colonisation of Newfoundland. In 1620, a band of English Puritan refugees sailed from Holland in two small vessels to find a home in the New World. These exiles—the celebrated 'Pilgrim Fathers'—put into Plymouth, whence they afterwards sailed in the 'Mayflower,' and landed safely in Massachusetts Bay. In memory of the kindness received at Plymouth, they named their first settlement New Plymouth.

Important changes were also taking place in Ireland. In the early part of the reign, about two million acres were taken from the rebellious chiefs of Ulster, and a scheme was set on foot to divide the land amongst settlers from Great Britain. A company was formed in London for this purpose; and the king instituted and sold the title of 'baronet,' to obtain funds. Great numbers of English and Scotch settled in Ulster and other parts, and thus laid the foundation of the prosperity of that province.

James died of ague at his palace of Theobalds, in Hertfordshire. His character is marked by obstinacy and conceit; he was vain of his learning, and peaceful in disposition. He had a weakness for favourites. His person was awkward and ungainly; and though he was fond of power, pride was not one of his faults. His children by his only wife, Anne of Denmark, were: Henry, who died 1612; Charles, who became king; and Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine, from whom the House of Brunswick descends.

Mar. 27, **1625** A.D.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1604, the union of England and Scotland was first mooted, but the proposal, being opposed by both nations, came to nothing. The East India Company established factories at Surat and other places, and opened up trade with Java and Sumatra. In 1619, Dr. Harvey published his discovery of the circulation of the blood. The manufacture of broad silk and cotton were introduced about the

close of the reign. Licenses were first granted to public-houses. Farthings were coined, being the first copper money issued in England. The palace of Whitehall was designed by Inigo Jones, and the New River constructed for supplying London with water. Baffin and Hudson explored the Arctic Sea, and discovered Greenland and the adjacent coasts. James tried to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but the opposition of the Presbyterians made the attempt useless. The microscope and thermometer came into use. The first newspaper, 'The Weekly News,' published in 1622.

General Costume of Nobility, time of James I.

CHARLES I.

Born 1600 A.D. Began to Reign 1625 A.D. Beheaded 1649 A.D.

Dispute with the First Parliaments.
Petition of Right.
War with Spain and France.
Murder of Buckingham.
Absolute Government of Charles.
Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission.
Ship-Money.
The Prayer Book in Scotland.
The Covenant.
Rebellion of the Scots.
The Long Parliament.
Execution of Strafford.
Pacification of Scotland.
The Irish Rebellion.
Cavaliers and Roundheads.
Rupture between King and Parliament.
The Grand Remonstrance.
Attempted Seizure of the 'Five Members.'
The Civil War.
Disputes between Parliament and the Army.
Royalist Insurrections.
Pride's Purge.
Trial, Execution, and Character of Charles.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Disputes with the First Parliaments. Petition of Right.

CHARLES I., the second son of James I., ascended the throne at a very critical time. The popular mind during the late reign had lost much of its respect for royalty, and the claims of James I. to absolute authority had provoked the spirit of the people. Puritanism, too, had taken deep root in the land, in spite of opposition and oppression; and as Church and king were regarded as one by the Puritan mind, opposition to the kingly power followed as a natural consequence. Parliament had neglected to place checks upon the royal authority when the House of Stuart first came to the throne. The accession of a new king gave a suitable opportunity for this purpose. Charles, before calling his first Parliament, had married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, and the Roman Catholic

religion, which the queen professed, was by no means favourable to the popularity of the court. The king met his first Parliament at Westminster under unfavourable circumstances. His father had left him a heavy debt to pay, a war with the powerful kingdom of Spain, and an unpopular court favourite in the person of the Duke of Buckingham. On the other hand, the House of Commons was chiefly composed of Puritans, to whom civil and religious liberty were things inseparable, and they therefore resolved to have both, by making the king dependent upon their will. To the king's demand for money to meet the expenses of government and the war, they voted 140,000*l.*, with tonnage and poundage for one year only—a sum insufficient to pay half the debt left by James I.[1] They presented at the same time a petition praying the king to put in force all laws against Romanists. Charles, finding his Parliament deaf to his entreaties for supplies, dissolved it. By means of the old custom of forced loans, he obtained enough money to equip a fleet for an expedition to Spain.

A second Parliament was summoned in 1626; but four leading Opposition members of the late House of Commons were appointed sheriffs, and were thus prevented from being elected on this occasion. The Commons, however, were more hostile than before. They renewed their complaints against Papists, protested against levying moneys without their consent, and proceeded to impeach the king's minister, the Duke of Buckingham. Charles, exasperated with their opposition, imprisoned two leading members of the House, Digges and Eliot, on the charge of using seditious language. This proceeding gave great offence, and widened the breach already existing. To save his favourite, the king dissolved his second Parliament. Taxes were then raised without any legal right; the chiefs of the Opposition were thrown into prison; companies of soldiers were billeted on the people; and martial law was put in force in several places.

[1] *Tonnage* and *Poundage* were Custom dues, first levied in the reign of Edward III., and consisted of a certain charge on every *tun* of wine, and on every *pound* of merchandise imported or exported.

The king's difficulties were now further increased by a war with France; and to obtain the necessary supplies, he summoned a **third** Parliament. The Commons assembled with a set determination to maintain their rights and liberties. Before voting the required supplies, they drew up a law, called the **Petition of Right**, and presented it to the king for his assent. This famous Bill is the second Great Charter of the liberties of England. According to its provisions, the king solemnly bound himself: (1) Never to raise money without the consent of Parliament; (2) never again to imprison persons for refusing to pay illegal taxes; (3) not to billet soldiers on private individuals; (4) not to subject the people to martial law. Five subsidies, amounting to 400,000*l.*, were then voted, and the Parliament was delighted at the prospect of friendly relations with their sovereign. But the Petition of Right was soon broken. Taxes were raised illegally, as before; and when the Commons remonstrated, nine of the leading members were stigmatised as 'vipers,' and thrown into prison, where one of them, Sir John Eliot, died after years of confinement. Parliament was then dissolved with every mark of royal displeasure; and Charles, seeing that home affairs would require all his skill and attention, made peace with France and Spain.

1628 A.D.

War with Spain and France. Murder of Buckingham.

War with Spain had been declared by James I. chiefly through the influence of the Duke of Buckingham. In 1625, a fleet of nearly a hundred ships, containing about 10,000 soldiers, was sent to capture Cadiz, but the expedition turned out a failure. No further attempt was made, and the war was brought to an end in 1630.

War was declared against France in 1627. Buckingham had quarrelled with Cardinal Richelieu, the famous minister of that country, who was then engaged in a contest with the Huguenots of Rochelle. The duke, to revenge himself on the cardinal, advised his master to declare

war, on the plea of helping the French Protestants. Three expeditions were sent to relieve Rochelle, which was then being closely besieged. The first was commanded by Buckingham, and consisted of 100 vessels and 7,000 soldiers, but the inhabitants in distrust refused to receive the expedition into the harbour. The duke turned aside to the island of Rhé, where he lost half his men and achieved nothing. A second expedition was sent out in 1628, under Lord Denbigh, Buckingham's brother-in-law, but this proved as fruitless as the first. Buckingham resolved to head a third himself. While at Portsmouth, preparing to set sail, Lieutenant Felton, a disgraced officer, stabbed him to the heart. The expedition sailed under the command of the Earl of Lindsay, but failed like the others. Rochelle, after losing two-thirds of its inhabitants, surrendered to the French king. (October 18, 1628.) The war lingered ingloriously till 1630, when the home difficulties of Charles compelled him to make peace.

Absolute Government of Charles. Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission. Ship-Money.

After the dissolution of the third Parliament, Charles resolved to govern without one, and from March 1629 to April 1640 the Houses were not summoned. He had succeeded in winning over to his side several of the popular leaders, by whose help and guidance he made his rule as despotic as any continental sovereign. The most noted of these men was **Sir Thomas Wentworth**, afterwards made Earl of Strafford. He was a man of great talent, and was thoroughly acquainted with the feelings and plans of the party to which he had lately belonged. He suggested a scheme of government, to which he privately gave the name of 'Thorough.' Its object was to make the king's power absolute by the establishment of a standing army. Wentworth knew that he was hated to the death by the leaders with whom he had formerly acted, and, hating in return, he bent all the powers of his mind to

make the king's policy successful. Appointed Viceroy of Ireland in 1633, he put his scheme to the test in that country, and succeeded so well in establishing a military despotism over both the native people and the English colonists, that he was able to boast that the king was as absolute in that island as any prince in the whole world could be.

Another adviser of Charles at this time was **Laud**, Archbishop of Canterbury. The affairs of the English Church were entrusted to his hands. He was a man who believed that the English Reformation had been carried too far, and consequently he wished to revive many religious customs that had fallen into disuse. His opinions led the court of Rome to hope that its authority would soon be restored in this country, and on two occasions the Pope offered him, in private, a cardinal's hat. This he refused, saying 'that something dwelt within him which would not suffer his compliance till Rome were other than it is.' To the Puritans Laud was bitterly opposed. Under his direction, every corner of the realm was thoroughly inspected for the uprooting of dissenting congregations. His harsh measures against the Puritans, and his extreme religious opinions, brought the English Church into hatred, and aggravated the evils of the king's government.

In defiance of the Petition of Right, Charles continued for eleven years to take his subjects' money on his own authority. All manner of devices were used to raise money. Old laws were revived; titles to land were called in question; monopolies were restored, and extended to nearly all articles in general use. Those who refused to pay forfeited their goods, or suffered imprisonment. If discontent showed itself in any district, royal troops were sent there and billeted upon the people. Against these illegal acts the people had no appeal. The judges held their office at the king's pleasure, and therefore dared not countenance opposition to the sovereign's will. But the chief instruments of Charles's government at this time were the courts of **Star Chamber** and **High Commission.** The Star Chamber attended to political matters, while the High

Commission looked after the affairs of religion. These courts, free from the control of Parliament, became very oppressive, and sentenced men to fines, imprisonment, the pillory, and mutilation, without restraint. For example, a certain Dr. Leighton was publicly whipped, his ears cut off, his nostrils slit, and his cheeks branded with the letters 'S. S.' ('Sower of Sedition'), by order of the Court of Star Chamber, for writing a book entitled 'Zion's Plea against Prelacy.' In like manner, a lawyer named Prynne was heavily fined and put into the pillory, with the loss of his ears, for writings in which the queen was said to be libelled. In addition to these courts, a council sat at York, under the presidency of Wentworth, which made the king's rule absolute in the north.

Of all the taxes levied by Charles, the most unpopular was that of **Ship-Money**. It had been the practice of previous kings, from the time of the Danish invasions, to call upon the maritime counties to furnish ships for the defence of the coast. Sometimes money was accepted instead of ships. On the advice of Finch, the Chief Justice, and Noy, the Attorney-General, it was resolved in 1634 to revive the old custom. The sea-ports were first called upon to pay a sum of money instead of ships, and in the following year, a similar payment was demanded of the inland counties. The outcries against this imposition were loud and general. People said it was a war tax in time of peace; that former princes never collected it from inland places; that it was always devoted to the maintenance of a navy, but that the king now could do what he liked with it; and that it was levied without consent of Parliament. A fleet, indeed, was necessary for England's safety, for the Dutch and Barbary pirates frequented the coasts, and did much mischief to English commerce. Ship-money enabled the king to fit out a formidable fleet, which did good service; but the safety of the coasts could not reconcile the people to arbitrary taxation. John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, had the courage to challenge the lawfulness of the imposition. A sum of twenty shillings was levied upon his estate, and, re-

fusing to pay, the case was argued before the judges in the Court of Exchequer. The judges, by a small majority, decided against Hampden, but the trial was damaging to the government. The nation was irritated and aroused, and encouraged by Hampden's example to dispute the royal will. The arguments used at the trial enabled men to see that their liberties were in danger, and everywhere the nation's peril was discussed and lamented. 1637 A.D.

Many, despairing of their country, now turned their eyes to the shores of America, where a few resolute Puritans had already established a home. Thither ship after ship sailed with men in search of the civil and religious liberty denied them at home. The government regarded these colonies with dislike, and was angered to see its opponents escape from its power. Eight ships, containing some of the best of England's sons, were lying in the Thames, ready to sail, when an order of Council came forbidding them to proceed. On board one of these were Sir Arthur Hazelrig, John Hampden, John Pym, and Oliver Cromwell, men who afterwards took a foremost part in overthrowing the royal power. The king had leisure in after years to repent of the step which hindered these men from leaving the country. The nation at this time seemed utterly at the king's mercy, and Wentworth's scheme of 'Thorough' seemed in a fair way of being accomplished, when the royal policy in Scotland suddenly changed the whole face of affairs.

Introduction of a Prayer Book into Scotland. The Covenant. Rebellion of the Scots.

Charles, like his father, wished to establish in Scotland a religious system similar to that of England. In 1633, he visited his northern kingdom, accompanied by Laud, and on that occasion appointed fourteen bishops. Several of these prelates were raised to the chief dignities of the State, much to the disgust of the Scotch nobility, who regarded these ecclesiastics as upstarts, and probable claimants of the Church property pillaged at the Reforma-

tion. The lower order of the clergy, too, looked with no friendly eye upon the bishops. The common people, influenced by nobles and clergy, were jealous of the king's intentions, and very discontented with his measures. In no country was there such a horror of Romanism. To the Presbyterian mind, bishops, surplices, and a liturgy were popish, and therefore hateful. No riotous opposition, however, was offered to the king as long as the people were permitted to conduct public worship according to the Presbyterian manner. In an unhappy moment, Charles resolved to introduce a Prayer Book into the Scotch Kirk. A service book was compiled after the pattern of the English Liturgy, but far more repugnant to rigid Protestants, and notice was issued that it should be used on a certain Sunday in the cathedral church of St. Giles, Edinburgh. On the appointed day the Dean of Edinburgh proceeded to read the service in the presence of the bishops and Privy Council, and a vast crowd of people, but no sooner was the book opened than the people groaned, hissed, and shouted, 'A Pope! a Pope! Antichrist! Stone him!' The bishop, mounting the pulpit to stop the tumult, had a stool thrown at his head, and barely escaped with his life. The tumult thus begun was followed by a riot, and the riot ended in revolution. In vain did Charles threaten the unruly Scots with military force. The spirit of the people was up, and their fanaticism was lashed to fury from every pulpit in the land. Four *tables*, or committees, were formed in Edinburgh, consisting of the nobility, gentry, ministers, and burgesses respectively; and all the authority of the kingdom passed into their hands. One of their first measures was the production of the national **Covenant**, by which the people bound themselves to resist popery and all innovations in religion, and to defend each other against all opposition. (1638.) Before two months had passed, nineteen-twentieths of the nation, of all ranks and both sexes, signed this document, and were henceforth called *Covenanters*. A General Assembly soon after met at Glasgow, and abolished episcopacy, liturgy, canons, and High Com-

1637 A.D.

mission Court—all that James and Charles had spent years to establish; and thus presbyterianism once more rooted itself more firmly in the Scottish Church.

Both sides now rushed to arms—the king to defend his authority, the Scots their religion and liberties. Twenty thousand men were soon assembled under Charles at Berwick, while an equal number of Scots, under General Leslie, marched towards the same place. England was quite strong enough to coerce the Scots, though they were secretly aided with money and arms by Cardinal Richelieu of France; but the majority of the English people sympathised with the revolt, and trusted that its success would be useful in upsetting the arbitrary government of the king. Charles, aware of this feeling amongst his English subjects, instead of proceeding to battle, entered into negotiation with the insurgents, by which it was agreed that both armies should be disbanded, and that all disputes should be settled by a General Assembly and Parliament. (1639.) These Assemblies not only confirmed all that had previously been done, but proceeded to take measures for curbing the royal power for the future. Charles, though willing to yield to the wishes of the Scots in matters of religion, resolved to uphold his authority by force of arms; but money was wanting to equip an army. No resource was left but to call a Parliament; and in the spring of 1640, one was convoked. Supplies of money were at once asked; but the House of Commons, remembering that for eleven years the country had been without a Parliament, and had been subject to many unjust exactions, complained of their grievances, instead of voting money. This conduct was highly displeasing to Charles, and the Parliament was dissolved with every mark of displeasure, after sitting only three weeks. On this account it has been called the 'Short Parliament.' This abrupt dissolution increased the discontent already existing, which was further increased by the rigorous exactions of money that followed this step. By means of illegal taxation, the king got together an army of 20,000 men, but the Scots, encouraged by the leaders of the English Opposition, were

beforehand with him. They crossed the Tweed under Leslie, routed a small body of English at Newburn-on-Tyne, and took possession of Newcastle. Charles, as a last expedient, summoned a great Council of Peers to meet him at York, where it was decided to call another Parliament, and take immediate measures to stop the progress of the Scots. Commissioners from both sides drew up the **Treaty of Ripon**, by which it was agreed that the points in dispute should be settled by the Parliaments of the two countries, and that in the meantime England should pay the cost of the Scottish army.

The Long Parliament. Execution of Strafford. Pacification of Scotland.

In November 1640, the memorable Assembly known in history as the **Long Parliament** came together. It continued to sit till Cromwell turned out the members in 1653, and was not finally dissolved till 1660. All the surviving popular leaders who had opposed the king's policy in the previous parliaments were again returned. Taking advantage of the presence of a Scottish army in England, they resolved to curb the royal power, and remove the grievances under which the nation had groaned for the last eleven years. Instead of granting money to crush the rebellion of the Scots, they proceeded to take measures for the protection of their own liberties. The victims of the courts of Star Chamber and High Commission were released and compensated. The advisers of the king were accused of treason and brought to punishment. Strafford, the only able man Charles had, was impeached of treason before the House of Lords by Pym, the leader of the Commons, and sent to the Tower. The Lord Keeper, Finch, escaped arrest by flight, while Laud was sent after Strafford. Attention was then given to the question of religion. Laud's extreme views and the favours shown to Romanists did as much to make the king unpopular as his unlawful government. The people were alarmed at the spread of

Nov. 1640 A.D.

popery. The Commons compelled the king to dismiss all Roman Catholics from the court and army, and to banish all Romish priests from the kingdom. On their own authority they ordered all images and ornaments in churches to be removed and defaced. In this way many valuable monuments at Cheapside and Charing Cross were destroyed.

For ten months Parliament worked hard to secure the liberties of the nation. By a **Triennial Bill**, it enacted that there should be a Parliament at least every *three* years; and if the writs were not issued by royal authority at the proper time, the people themselves should proceed to elect their representatives. And to prevent the sovereign from suddenly dismissing the Parliament, it was further enacted that the Houses should not be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved, within fifty days of assembling, without their own consent. The king having been thus rendered powerless, it was determined to bring Strafford to trial. So well did this nobleman defend himself in Westminster Hall that, to ensure his destruction, the impeachment was abandoned in favour of a Bill of Attainder, by which an accused person might be *voted* worthy of death. The popular leaders never forgave Strafford's desertion of their cause. He was too able a man to let live; and until his head rolled on the scaffold, their plans were not sure of success. In a House of Commons of 263 members, only 59 voted against the Bill, and some of those who afterwards became leading Royalists, as Colepepper, Hyde, and Falkland, were in the majority. Charles hesitated to sign the death-warrant of his faithful servant. Mobs surrounded his palace of Whitehall, and clamoured for justice upon the condemned earl. The queen, terrified with the tumult, and by no means friendly to Strafford, besought her husband with tears to grant the demands of the people. At this juncture, Strafford wrote a letter to the king, offering to lay down his life willingly to secure the peace of the nation. In a few days, the Bill of Attainder received the royal signature, and the earl was executed on Tower Hill. As he passed Laud's windows to the scaffold, the aged prelate held

May 12, **1641** A.D.

out his hands in blessing over his doomed friend, little thinking that he, too, ere long, would experience the same fate.

Parliament, having passed a Bill that the Houses should not be dissolved without their own consent, voted 300,000*l.* to the Scotch for their timely assistance, and abolished the courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, and regulated all the other courts in which the king exercised any authority. The House of Commons next gave its attention to the conduct of the bishops and clergy; but the violent spirit in which religious questions were argued caused a split among the members, and produced a reaction in the king's favour.

Charles then visited Scotland, and pacified the people of that country by surrendering the royal authority entirely into their hands. He even took into his favour the men who had been most active against him. Leslie was made Earl of Leven, and Argyle, the leader of the Covenanters, was made a marquis. These concessions to the Scots produced a good feeling in England, and strengthened the hands of those who thought that the English Parliament need not encroach any further on the royal prerogative. But just then news came from Ireland which kindled anew the flames of discord and opposition.

The Irish Rebellion. Cavaliers and Roundheads.

In the reign of James I. many English and Scotch settled down in Ulster, on lands taken from the rebellious chiefs of that province. The native Irish regarded these new settlers with the greatest hatred, as being aliens in race and heretics in religion. Under Strafford's iron rule, scarcely any one dared to give vent to their ill-will. His arbitrary authority, however, though it made the island peaceful in appearance, increased the hatred to everything English. The successful rebellion of the Scotch, and the action of the Long Parliament, gave to the Irish an example which they were not slow to follow. Strafford was dead, and the army which upheld his power was greatly

reduced in numbers. Now was the time to destroy for ever English supremacy in Ireland. A deep-rooted conspiracy for this purpose, headed by Roger More, O'Neale, and other chieftains, spread throughout Ulster. On the approach of winter, the Irish of the north were up in arms, and let loose their pent-up rage upon the unhappy settlers. Their example was quickly followed by the rest of the island, and even the English of the Pale, as the old English planters were called, joined in the war of extermination. No age, sex, or condition was spared. Wives weeping over their murdered husbands, and little ones clinging to their mothers, were butchered without mercy. Religion, instead of staying the murderer's hand, added greater fury to his hate. The English, as heretics, were marked out by popish priests as undeserving of pity, and to rid the world of such enemies was proclaimed a meritorious act. How many perished in this cruel slaughter is not accurately known. The highest estimate gives two hundred thousand, the lowest, forty thousand.

Oct. 23, **1641** A.D.

The news of this massacre increased the animosity of the English Parliament towards Papists, but it refused to raise an army to punish the rebels, fearing the king might employ it against the liberties of England. The queen was a Romanist, and Charles was suspected of being partial to that faith. Besides, it was soon whispered abroad that the rebellion in Ireland was part of a dark scheme planned at the English court. The Commons, distrustful and suspicious, did scarcely anything to avenge their countrymen and religion, but took advantage of the crisis to obtain money and arms for their own defence, in case of troubles at home.

The House of Commons at this time was no longer united in its opinions. For the first ten months of its sitting, its Acts for the remedy of abuses were almost unanimously carried, but in the summer of this year a great reaction took place, and two great political parties then appeared on the scene. The king's concessions in Scotland brought many members of Parliament to his side.

They thought that enough had been done to vindicate and secure popular liberty, and that any further encroachment upon the royal prerogative would end in anarchy. Presbyterian influence in religious questions, besides, had grown to an alarming extent, and the Church of England seemed in danger of destruction. Thus thought Falkland, Hyde, and Colepepper—men who once occupied a foremost place in the popular party; and under their leadership a strong Royalist body arose in Parliament. On the other hand, Pym, Hollis, and Hampden, argued that opposition and watchfulness were still needed to secure what had been wrung from a king whose word could not be trusted. The majority of the nobles, the clergy, and country gentlemen, were on the Royalist side. In the same interest were the Roman Catholics to a man, and so were all those who disliked Puritan austerity. The Opposition received its chief support from the merchants and shopkeepers of the towns, and from the small freeholders of the country. The whole body of Nonconformists and the Puritan members of the Church of England adhered to the same side. It was also headed by a few of the nobility, who, from their wealth and influence, were very formidable. The two parties in the House of Commons were nearly evenly balanced, but the preponderance was in favour of the Opposition. As discussion warmed and strife increased, party names came into use. The king's friends took the name of **Cavaliers**, whilst the supporters of the Opposition, from their close-cut hair, received in derision the name of **Roundheads**. In the course of years the name Tory and Whig took the place of Cavalier and Roundhead, but in modern times the same parties are known as Conservative and Liberal.

Rupture between the King and Parliament. The Grand Remonstrance. Attempted Seizure of the 'Five Members.'

The king's popularity in Scotland, and his favourable reception by the citizens of London on his return from the north, excited the fears of the popular party in Parliament.

A rumour, too, had spread that Charles had discovered a treasonable correspondence between the Parliamentary leaders and the Scots, and that he intended to punish them as traitors. All this, coupled with alarming news from Ireland, produced a violent discussion in the House of Commons. The Opposition, distrustful of their sovereign's sincerity, fearful of his growing popularity, and anxious for its own safety, resolved to do something to stem the returning tide of loyalty, and make the preservation of liberty doubly sure. They therefore published a **Remonstrance**, setting forth all the faults of the king's government from the beginning of the reign, and expressing the distrust with which his policy was still regarded. It asserted that the realm was in danger from a popish faction, which had tried to introduce its superstition into England and Scotland, and had excited a bloody rebellion in Ireland. The object of the Remonstrance was evident. Moderate men saw in its publication the revival of discontents which had already been appeased, and an act of deliberate hostility against the king. In the House of Commons the proposal was discussed with such warmth as at one time to threaten open violence; and in the streets of London opposing factions often came to blows. It was a trial of strength between the friends of the court and the Opposition, upon which the future government of the nation depended. Both sides were fierce, eager, and determined, and pretty nearly equal in strength; but after a long and hot debate, the Remonstrance was carried by the small majority of 159 to 148. So important was the contest, that **Oliver Cromwell**, one of the leading members of the Opposition, declared, on leaving the House, that had the question been lost, he would have sold his estate and retired to America.

Nov. 22, **1641** A.D.

The result of the struggle was, after all, favourable to the court. A majority of eleven was nothing to boast of, and the king's friends saw that if he showed respect to the laws and moderation in his conduct, the balance of power would soon turn in his favour. Hyde, Falkland, and Colepepper, men once foremost in the popular ranks, became his

confidential advisers, and everything seemed to promise well. But the leaders of the Commons were not satisfied with this victory. They had no confidence in the king's intentions, and the fear of popery was ever present in their minds and the cause of continual distrust. Rumours of popish plots were set abroad, and the pulpits of London resounded with the dangers which threatened religion. The bishops became so obnoxious that they were daily insulted in the streets. At length, prevented by the rabble from attending the House of Lords, they issued a protest against all laws passed in their absence. For this they were impeached of high treason by the Commons, and sent to the Tower. The king, provoked by such an insult to the Church, committed an act of indiscretion which finally ended in his ruin. Thinking to strike terror into his opponents, he went to the House of Commons, accompanied by armed attendants, to seize five of its leading men—Hollis, Hampden, Pym, Haselrig, and Strode. But these members having received private information of the blow intended for them, fled into the City just before Charles entered the House. This violation of the privileges of Parliament roused the spirit of the Opposition to fury. The streets of London that night were filled with armed mobs. In a few days the roads leading to the capital were crowded with armed men hurrying to defend their representatives, and strong bodies of train-bands were placed on guard round Westminster Hall. The king's friends in Parliament were entirely helpless; shame for his reckless conduct kept many silent, and fears for their personal safety prevented others from attending. The royal palace was no longer safe, and Charles quitted London, never again to return to it except as a prisoner. The breach between king and Parliament daily grew wider, and it was manifest on both sides that the quarrel must be decided by the sword. The leaders of the Commons believed that Charles only wanted the power to crush them; they dared not trust him with an army, though Ireland needed a force to punish the authors of its cruel rebellion. The king, therefore, was required to give up the command of the militia, or, in other words, the control of the armed force of the

kingdom. Fearing that violence would be employed to extort his consent, he retired to York. On his journey, he found that the violence of the Londoners had produced its reaction, and on every side he received expressions of sympathy and encouragement. Hull, however, where a great quantity of arms were stored, was shut against him. At York the Commons presented their last demands, in nineteen propositions, which, if granted, would upset the ancient institutions of the realm, and reduce the sovereign to a mere puppet. Charles was particularly enraged at the demand to give up the control of the military forces of the kingdom, since he and his friends had as much reason to distrust the sincerity of the Parliamentary leaders as they had to distrust him. The Parliament was already acting in his name without his sanction, and levying forces 'for the defence of the king and Parliament,' which they were resolved to use against the person of the sovereign if necessary. Nothing remained for Charles but to submit to the usurpation of his prerogatives or to draw the sword. He chose the latter, and at Nottingham raised the royal standard, the signal of civil war throughout the kingdom, and very soon 10,000 men rallied round it.

Aug. 25, **1642** A.D.

The Civil War.

As soon as the royal standard was unfurled at Nottingham, hostile factions appeared in arms in almost every county of England. The contending parties were pretty equally matched, but the Parliament had an advantage in possessing London and the neighbouring counties, and the majority of the large towns, from which it could raise supplies of money. The fleet, too, which commanded the seaports, was under its control. The king could only raise money from the rural districts occupied by his troops; but he was surrounded by the gentry and aristocracy of the land, who willingly pawned their jewels, broke up their plate, and mortgaged their lands, to supply their sovereign's need. But he had an advantage over the Houses

in having under his banner high-spirited gentlemen, accustomed to the use of arms and horses, to whom defeat was the greatest disgrace. These, with their numerous dependents, formed a force against which the Parliament had little chance of contending successfully. Plough-boys, apprentice-lads, and tradesmen, of which the Parliamentary ranks were chiefly composed, were no match for the chivalry of England. At the outset, therefore, the Royalist side was victorious in almost every encounter.

The Royal army was placed under the command of the Earl of Lindsay. Prince Rupert, the king's nephew, was at the head of the cavalry. On the Parliament side, the Earl of Essex commanded the land forces, while the fleet was committed to the Earl of Warwick. Blood was first drawn in a cavalry skirmish at **Powick Bridge**, near Worcester, where Prince Rupert routed a body of horse. The first pitched battle took place at **Edgehill**, in Warwickshire, in which Lindsay was mortally wounded and taken prisoner. The result was indecisive. The two armies were still facing each other on the following morning, but neither was disposed to renew the contest. Essex, however, first drew off the field, and Charles returned to his headquarters at Shrewsbury. Shortly after, the Royalist forces marched towards the capital, and put to flight some cavalry in the village of **Brentford**; but failing to enter London, the king withdrew to Oxford to spend the winter.

Oct. 23, **1642** A.D.

In the early part of the following year, the Scottish Parliament offered to mediate between the contending parties, and negotiations were carried on at Oxford, but to no purpose. The campaign opened with the siege of **Reading**, which surrendered to Essex in ten days. The Royalist horse stopped all further advance in that quarter, and in a skirmish which took place at **Chalgrove Field**, Oxfordshire, John Hampden was mortally wounded. In the west and in the north the king's side was everywhere victorious. At **Stratton**, in Cornwall; **Atherton Moor**, near Bradford; **Lansdown**, near Bath (July 5); and at **Roundway Down**, near Devizes (July 13), the Parliamentarians were succes-

sively beaten. Charles captured **Bristol**, then the second city in the kingdom, after a siege of three days, and immediately proceeded to invest the important town of Gloucester. It was just on the point of surrendering, when Essex, moving rapidly with a force of 14,000 men, compelled the king to raise the siege. Both armies then directed their march towards London, and came in contact at **Newbury**, Berkshire, where a desperate battle was fought till night put an end to the strife. The victory was undecided; but the Royalist cause suffered much in the death of **Lord Falkland**, who, from his high character and great ability, was called 'the glory of his party.' This battle closed the campaign of 1643.

Sept. 20, **1643** A.D.

While England was thus torn with civil strife, the Puritan party gave rise to a faction which in a short time became the most powerful in the country. In religion, its members were called **Independents**, and in politics, 'root and branch men.' They were bitterly opposed to prelacy, and maintained that every Christian congregation was an independent Church of itself, and therefore free from all external control. They hated monarchy also as much as prelacy, and were desirous of erecting a republic. The leading spirit of this party was **Oliver Cromwell**, whose early life had been spent in peaceful pursuits in his native county of Huntingdon. As a member of the Long Parliament, he was chiefly known as a man of homely manners, slovenly dress, and rough-and-ready speech. When the civil war broke out, he took charge of some horse, and soon gave signs of military skill and genius. During the summer of 1643, while the Parliamentarians were being defeated in the south, he gained several advantages over the Royalists in the north. With the eye of genius, he saw the reason of the king's success, and the means by which it was to be overcome. Filling his regiment with men after his own heart, he subjected them to such discipline that, under the name of 'Ironsides,' they became invincible in battle, and a terror to their foes. The success of the Royalists led the Parliamentarians, in the summer of 1643, to seek aid from Scotland. The Scots promised to

assist them on condition that they should subscribe the Covenant, by which prelacy had been abolished in the northern kingdom, and thus make the Church of England like their own. The Houses consented to do so, and entered into a compact which was called the **Solemn League and Covenant.** Soon after, the **Assembly of Divines,** consisting of 120 ministers and 30 of the Lords and Commons, sat at Westminster to regulate the affairs of the English Church according to the Presbyterian model. They drew up a Confession of Faith, a Catechism, and a Directory for Public Worship. Those clergy who refused to take the Covenant were ejected from their livings. About 2,000 thus suffered.

The year 1644 was favourable to the Parliamentary cause. Charles, in dread of the League with the Scots, had sent to Ireland for some troops. Five regiments, consequently, landed at Mostyn, North Wales; but Fairfax, the leader of the Roundhead forces in the north, suddenly attacked them at **Nantwich,** and took many prisoners. (January 25, 1644.) In the same month, a Scotch army of 21,000, under the Earl of Leven, marched into England, according to the terms of the League. The Marquis of Newcastle, the commander of the Royalist army of the north, finding himself threatened in front and rear, retreated to York, and was there closely besieged by the united forces of Fairfax, Leven, and the Earl of Manchester. Charles was in the south contending against Essex and Waller, and defeated the latter general at **Cropredy Bridge,** near Banbury. (June 29.) Prince Rupert, however, had been sent with 20,000 men to raise the siege of York. Joining his forces with those of Newcastle, the prince marched out of the city to give battle to the enemy on **Marston Moor.** The right wing was under his command, and in front of him on the other side stood Cromwell and his 'Ironsides.' The opposing wings rushed to the attack, but the personal bravery of the Cavaliers was no match for the stern discipline and stubborn valour of Cromwell's troopers, and very soon Rupert and his men were seen in headlong flight. A similar fate befell the right

wing of the Parliamentarians, but, through Cromwell's good generalship, the battle ended in the complete defeat of the Royalists. This victory completely ruined the Royal cause in the north. York in a few days opened its gates; and Newcastle was entered by the Scots. July 2, **1644** A.D.

Though disasters attended the Cavaliers in the north, Charles was successful in the south. Following Essex into Cornwall, he surrounded him between Fowey and Lestwithiel, and forced his infantry to surrender, while the earl himself escaped in a boat to Plymouth. A few weeks after, the king met the Parliamentarians from the north at **Newbury**, where another indecisive battle took place, but the advantage on the whole was in favour of the latter. (October 27, 1644.) Charles withdrew his forces in safety to Oxford, much to the annoyance of Cromwell, who afterwards blamed the Earl of Manchester for the indecisive results of the battle.

While these things were going on in England, the Marquis of Montrose, aided by a body of Irish, was valiantly maintaining the Royal cause in Scotland. At **Tippermuir**, near Perth, he routed the Covenanters with great slaughter (September 1), and soon after took possession of Aberdeen.

The close of the year 1644 witnessed the trial and condemnation of Archbishop Laud. The Scots hated the aged prelate for his interference in their affairs, and their influence at London at this time was sufficiently strong to ensure his destruction. After three years' imprisonment he was voted guilty of high treason by Bill of Attainder, though the judges had declared that the charges against him contained no legal treason. At the age of seventy, Laud, to the lasting reproach of the Long Parliament, perished on the scaffold. Later in the same year, the Book of Common Prayer was forbidden to be used even in family worship. Jan. 10, **1645** A.D.

In January 1645, negotiations were opened at Uxbridge to settle the dispute between king and Parliament; but as neither party seemed inclined to give way, the matter

ended in failure. The topics of discussion related to the Church, the militia, and the state of Ireland. The Commissioners on the Parliament side demanded the establishment of the Presbyterian religion, full control of the militia, and the right of appointing the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. Charles, in spite of the advice of many of his friends, refused to sacrifice the English Church, or to give himself up, bound, as it were, hand and foot, to the will of his enemies. The treaty at Uxbridge was therefore broken off, and recourse was had once more to the fortunes of war.

A suspicion had taken root in the minds of the Independent leaders that the Earls of Essex and Manchester were not sufficiently determined in their opposition to the king. Cromwell and his party resolved to remove them from the command, and to model a new army. A Bill was therefore passed in Parliament, called the **Self-denying Ordinance**, by which all members of both Houses were to resign their commands in the army, or civil employments. (April 1645.) At the same time another measure was carried, for the 'new-modelling' of the army, by which the number of men was reduced to about 21,000, of whom the great majority were Independents. The command of this army was given to Sir Thomas Fairfax, but Cromwell, though a member of the House of Commons, was allowed to hold the post of lieutenant-general.

June 14, **1645** A.D.

The first encounter between the new-modelled army and the Royalists took place at **Naseby**, Northamptonshire. Prince Rupert commanded the right wing of the Cavaliers, and routed as usual the forces opposed to him, but he lost his advantage by pursuing the fugitives too far. The king, in charge of the centre, was on the point of overpowering Fairfax, when Cromwell, having put to flight the left wing of the Royal army, hastened to the assistance of his chief. This movement decided the battle. In vain Charles called on his men to rally. 'One charge more,' said he, 'and we recover the day;' but nothing could withstand the onset of Cromwell's troopers, and the Royal cause was irretrievably

ruined. Besides the slain, 5,000 prisoners were taken on the field, as well as all the artillery and baggage. The most precious spoil of that day was the king's cabinet, containing his private correspondence, which disclosed secrets more injurious to his cause than any victory of his enemies.

Fairfax then proceeded to reduce the west, while Charles, attempting to relieve Chester, was defeated at **Rowton Moor.** (September 24.) The Royal cause, however, seemed successful in Scotland, where Montrose gave the Covenanters a terrible defeat at **Kilsyth**; but shortly after he himself was hopelessly beaten at **Philiphaugh.**

Fairfax, having subdued the west, proceeded early in 1646 to invest Oxford, where Charles had shut himself up. On his approach the king set out of the city by night, and gave himself up to the Scottish army besieging Newark. (May 5.) Here, though treated with all respect by the leaders of the Scots, he was little else than a prisoner. Their preachers, however, often insulted him to his face. Once during divine service one of them in a sermon before the king reproached him severely, and at the close gave out the fifty-second psalm to be sung:—

> Why dost thou, tyrant, boast thyself,
> Thy wicked deeds to praise?

Upon this the king stood up and called for the fifty-sixth psalm:—

> Have mercy, Lord, on me, I pray,
> For men would me devour!

This was willingly responded to by the soldiers present, much to the discomfiture of the preacher.

The Scots, having broken up their camp at Newark, retired with the king to Newcastle, where negotiations were opened with the Parliament for the settlement of affairs. Charles again refused to set aside the Church of England. Proposals were then made to the Scots to deliver up the king. The English Parliament guaranteed to pay them 400,000*l.*—their arrears of pay—if they would

surrender his person. These terms were accepted; and on receiving proper security, the Scottish army gave up Charles to the English Commissioners, and marched for their own country. This disgraceful act of greed and treachery was long remembered in the popular rhyme:—

Traitor Scot
Sold his king for a groat.

Disputes between the Army and Parliament. Royalist Insurrections. Pride's Purge. Trial, Execution, and Character of the King.

Charles was taken to Holmby House, Northamptonshire, where he was closely confined. As soon as the civil war was brought to an end, a struggle for supremacy arose between the army and the Parliament. The latter, thoroughly imbued with Presbyterian principles, regarded with jealousy the power of the army, which was chiefly composed of Independents and other 'sectaries.' It was resolved, therefore, to disband a part of the army, and send the rest into Ireland. The Independents, however, had schemes of their own to carry out, and were by no means disposed to submit to Presbyterian supremacy. They secretly communicated with the king, and offered to restore him to power and dignity. Receiving an unfavourable reply, they resolved to take him out of the hands of the Parliament. This bold measure was undertaken by Cornet Joyce, who, with a strong body of horse, carried off the king to the headquarters of the army, near Newmarket. (June 4, 1647.) Parliament, astonished at this military violence, proceeded to take severe measures against Cromwell, who was suspected of being the author of the movement; but he escaped to the army, where he was received with great joy. The House of Commons was powerless to exert its authority, and it was therefore obliged to yield to military force. The army marched to London, and it soon became evident that the settlement of the kingdom rested in its hands. Charles was taken to

Hampton Court, and kindly treated by his new gaolers. They allowed him to correspond with his family and friends, and permitted him the free exercise of his religion. These indulgences, however, soon ceased. His refusal to accept terms of settlement from the military leaders caused an open breach with the army, and in the end cost him his life. The Scots, the Parliament, and the military were each negotiating with the royal prisoner, who thought by their disagreement to return to power untrammelled by any pledges. Loud and angry were the mutterings of the soldiery when the king's refusal of their terms became known. Finding Hampton Court no longer a safe abode, Charles fled to the Isle of Wight, with the intention of escaping to the Continent. Colonel Hammond, the governor of the island, received him with all respect, and conducted him to Carisbrook Castle, where he was guarded more closely than ever. Here negotiations were again opened with him by the Scots and the English Parliament. In Scotland public opinion had undergone a great change since the king was delivered up to his enemies at Newcastle, and the shame of that transaction made the Scots long to do something for him. They were, besides, jealous of the power of the Independents in England. On their promise of military help, Charles declined the proposals of the Parliament. The latter, in consequence, determined to hold no further correspondence with him, and he was at once placed in close and solitary confinement. In the meantime, at a meeting of the principal officers of the army at Windsor, it was resolved to bring the king to trial, and avenge the blood shed in the civil war by an awful punishment.

The year 1648 saw another brave attempt of the Royalists on behalf of their unfortunate prince. There were risings in Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Kent, and Wales. The fleet in the Thames suddenly hoisted the Royal colours, sailed for Holland, and placed itself at the service of the Prince of Wales. The Scots, in the summer, invaded England under the Duke of Hamilton, and were joined by the Royalists of the north under Sir Marmaduke Langdale. But

the activity and vigilance of the English army frustrated all these movements. While Fairfax quelled the insurrections near London, Cromwell marched to the north; defeated Langdale at Preston; and after routing Hamilton, pursued him as far as Uttoxeter, where he was obliged to surrender, with most of his forces.

Aug. 20, **1648** A.D.

During the absence of the army from London, Parliament renewed their negotiations with the king, in the treaty of Newport. Charles consented to accept all their terms except two, which demanded the punishment of some of his chief friends, and the renunciation of episcopacy. The Commons, satisfied with his concessions, declared that there was now sufficient basis for a satisfactory peace. But the leaders of the army had long before decided to bring the king to trial and overthrow the monarchy, and their return to the south gave the death-blow to the treaty of Newport. They immediately sent the king to Hurst Castle, and proceeded to clear the House of Commons of all members opposed to their plans. For this purpose Colonel Pride with an armed force arrested upwards of forty leading Presbyterian members of Parliament, and on the following day shut out about 160 others. (December 7.) This act of violence was called **Pride's Purge.** At the same time the House of Lords was closed. The remaining fifty or sixty members, all of whom were Independents, received the nickname of the 'Rump.' This remnant proceeded to nominate a High Court of Justice for the trial of King Charles on the charge of levying war against the people of England. The court consisted of 135 Commissioners, chosen from the army, the Parliament, and such citizens of London as were favourable to republican principles. But the majority of those named refused to act, and only about sixty answered to their names. Bradshaw, a lawyer, sat as president. On January 20, 1649, Charles was brought from Whitehall to the bar of the 'High Court of Justice,' at Westminster Hall. As he drew near to the House, the rude soldiery received him with yells of vengeance. The trial commenced by calling

over the roll of the members of the court. When the name of Fairfax was called, a voice from one of the crowded galleries shouted, 'He has more wit than to be here!' and when the deed of accusation was stated to be 'in the name of the people,' the same voice exclaimed, 'Not a tenth part of them!' The officer who commanded the guards ordered his men to fire at the place whence the voice proceeded; but discovering the speaker to be Lady Fairfax, the wife of the general of the forces, the order was not carried out. The trial lasted three days, and ended with sentence of death. During the whole time, the king behaved with the greatest dignity, and his fortitude and serenity never forsook him, though he was subjected to many insults from the riotous soldiery. When one ruffian spat in his face, the captive monarch wiped it off with his handkerchief, and only said, 'Poor creatures! for half-a-crown they would do the same to their father.' One soldier uttered a blessing upon him as he passed, for which his officer struck him to the ground. The king, observing the act, said, 'The punishment, methinks, exceeds the offence.'

After the close of the trial, Charles retired to St. James's Palace, accompanied by Bishop Juxon, and there prepared himself for his doom. In a few days he was taken through one of the windows of the banqueting house at Whitehall on to a large scaffold hung with black, and closely surrounded with soldiers. Two executioners in masks were in attendance. Bishop Juxon and a Mr. Herbert accompanied their unfortunate monarch. When the king was preparing himself for the block, the bishop said to him: 'There is, sir, but one stage more, which, though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. Consider, it will soon carry you a great way; it will carry you from earth to heaven; and there you shall find, to your great joy, the prize to which you hasten, a crown of glory.' 'I go,' replied the king, 'from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can have place.' Then, turning to lay his head on the block, he said emphatically to the bishop, 'Remember!' One blow of

the axe, and all was over. The soldiers shouted at the sight of the dripping head, but the multitude burst out into tears and lamentations. Immediately after the execution, Juxon was called upon to explain the meaning of the mysterious word 'Remember!' The prelate replied that it was meant to enforce a command which the king had given him, to exhort the prince, his son, to forgive his father's murderers.

Jan. 30, 1649 A.D.

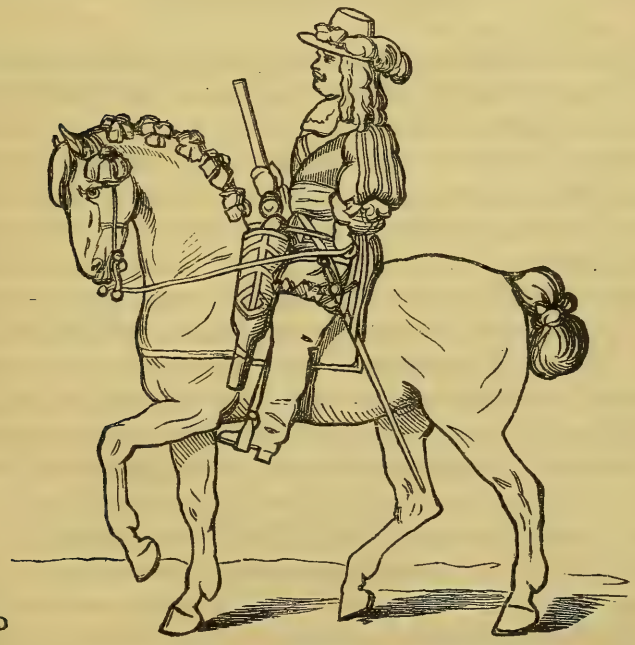
The public and private life of Charles I. present many points of contrast. Inheriting from his father a love of arbitrary power and exalted notions of the dignity of a king, he considered himself justified in using any means to defend and maintain his royal prerogatives. Double-dealing with political opponents, therefore, marked his public conduct, and this faithlessness was the chief cause of his disasters. In all other respects he had the qualities of a good prince; and had his lot been cast in private life, he would have been a man of estimable character. His taste in literature and art was excellent, and his domestic life was that of a Christian gentleman. In his portrait by Vandyke, Charles is seen as a man of dark complexion, lofty brow, mild and mournful eyes, long curling hair, moustache, and pointed beard.

Charles had three sons and three daughters. The sons were: Charles Prince of Wales; James Duke of York, afterwards James II.; and Henry Duke of Gloucester. The daughters were: Mary, married to the Prince of Orange, and thus the mother of William III.; Elizabeth, who died at Carisbrook Castle shortly after her father's execution; and Henrietta Maria, married to Philip Duke of Orleans. The queen, after the execution of her husband, married Jermyn Earl of St. Albans, and returned to England after the restoration of her son Charles.

Miscellaneous Facts.

During the civil wars most of the fortresses in the kingdom, such as Pontefract and Nottingham castles, were dismantled. Puritan fanaticism, too, made sad havoc of many ecclesiastical buildings. Painted windows in churches,

statues inside and outside, and even the monuments of the dead, were broken and defaced. The tax on landed property, and the *excise*—a duty paid upon home-manufactured goods—were first levied by the Parliament to meet the expenses of the civil war. The Petition of Right, passed to check the king's arbitrary rule, was frequently broken by the Parliament during the commotions of this reign. Emigration was very active, until checked by royal proclamation. **Barbadoes**, the first English settlement in the West Indies, was colonised, and a settlement of Roman Catholics under Lord Baltimore was formed in Maryland. Among the improvements of the reign may be mentioned the introduction of hackney coaches in London; the establishment of a post office for the conveyance of letters to Scotland and a few of the chief towns; the application of pendulums to clocks; the invention of the barometer; and the first use of coffee in England. The Dutch painters **Rubens** and **Vandyke** enjoyed the patronage of Charles I.



Cavalier; time of Charles I.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649 A.D. to 1660 A.D.

A Republic Established.
Subjugation of Ireland and Scotland.
Battle of Dunbar.
Entry of the Scots into England.
Battle of Worcester.
War with Holland.
First Expulsion of the 'Rump.'
Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell.
Last Days of Cromwell.
His Death and Character.
Protectorate of Richard Cromwell.
Convention Parliament.
Monarchy Restored.
Miscellaneous Facts.

A Republic Established.

After the execution of Charles I., a proclamation was immediately issued, declaring it treason to give the title of king to anyone. The sole authority was vested in the mutilated House of Commons, or the 'Rump,' wherein very seldom more than seventy or eighty persons sat. These voted the House of Lords to be useless and dangerous, and the office of king burdensome and unnecessary. The executive government was intrusted to a Council of forty-one members, of whom Bradshaw was president, and the poet Milton, Foreign Secretary. Cromwell and Fairfax directed the affairs of the army, while Sir Harry Vane controlled the navy. The new republican government took the name of 'The Commonwealth of England;' and on its great seal was inscribed—'The first year of freedom, by God's blessing restored 1649.' The 'Commonwealth,' however, was by no means popular with the nation. It was established by military violence, and the power of the sword alone maintained its supremacy. Thirty thousand veteran troops were needed to keep down the reaction which

had commenced in favour of the unfortunate Stuarts when the king's head fell on the scaffold. The government of the country was in truth a military despotism, and Cromwell, the successful captain and idol of the soldiery, was the real head of the nation. The Royalists, under this force, were prostrate in the dust, and the fines imposed upon them swelled the revenue to double of what it had been under Charles I.

The Duke of Hamilton and two others followed their royal master to the scaffold, and an eminent Presbyterian minister, named Love, met with a similar fate.

Subjugation of Ireland and Scotland. Battle of Dunbar.

While the English Cavaliers lay at the mercy of their conquerors, Ireland and Scotland were in arms for the Stuart cause. The former country, after the rebellion of 1641, had for some time been in a state of wild confusion, and the civil war in England had prevented a sufficient force being sent there to re-establish a central government. At the time of the death of Charles I., there were five armies in the field, all acting independently of each other. All the fortresses of the island, excepting Dublin, Derry, and Belfast, were in the hands of the Marquis of Ormond, the leader of the Irish Royalists, and the authority of the English Parliament was on the verge of ruin. The task of subjugating Ireland was given to Cromwell, who, as lord-lieutenant, landed near Dublin with a force of 9,000 men. (August, 1649.) A fortnight before, Ormond had been defeated at **Rathmines** by the garrison of Dublin. In six months Cromwell completely subdued the island as it had never been mastered before since Strongbow first set foot on its shores. His mode of warfare was similar to that which the Israelites waged against the Canaanites. His stern Puritan troops showed no mercy to the Papists who resisted their arms, and the war became one of extermination. The campaign commenced with the siege of

Drogheda, which was carried by storm, sacked, and its garrison of nearly 3,000 men put to the sword. A similar fate befell **Wexford**, and every place that offered resistance. Cork, and many other towns, terrified at the ruthless slaughter, submitted without striking a blow, and by May in the following year, Cromwell was enabled to return to England, leaving the care of Ireland to his son-in-law, Ireton. Limerick endured a fifteen months' siege; and on its capitulation, the authority of the English Government was supreme in the island. Numerous Puritan colonists settled down on the lands of those who had perished by the sword, or had been transported to the West Indies, and Ireland thrived under their vigorous hands.

Sept. 12, **1649** A.D.

On Cromwell's arrival in London, he received quite an ovation from the army and the heads of the City. The 'Rump' passed a vote of thanks for his services, and gave him the name of Lord-General of the Armies of the Commonwealth. Scotland next required his attention. The Scots, on receiving news of the execution of the king, had proclaimed his son as Charles II. They invited the young prince to Scotland, and promised to maintain his cause, provided he subscribed the League and Covenant. Charles, unwilling to become a Presbyterian, sent the Marquis of Montrose from Holland to attempt a rising in his behalf, independently of the Covenanters. That nobleman landed at the Orkneys with about 600 men, and after forcing some of the islanders to join his standard, marched into Fifeshire. Here he was met by a few Scottish troopers, and on the first attack, his unwarlike fishermen threw down their arms and fled. Montrose escaped with difficulty, but was afterwards betrayed to the Covenanters. He was taken to Edinburgh, and there sentenced to be hanged on a gallows thirty feet high, his head to be fixed on the tolbooth or prison, his body to be quartered, and his limbs to be placed over the gates of the chief towns of Scotland. His enemies, out of spite, printed a book of his exploits, and ordered it to be tied round his neck by the hangman. The unfortunate nobleman bore all his indignities with the

greatest coolness, and died like a gallant Cavalier, with such dignity and courage as to bring tears into the eyes of his bitterest foes. (May 21, 1650.)

On the failure of Montrose, young Charles, finding no other alternative, agreed to sign the Covenant, and landed at the mouth of the Spey, about a month after the execution of that nobleman. He was joyously welcomed in Edinburgh, but his life amongst the rigid Presbyterians was anything but happy. The long sermons of their clergy, their stern invectives against the iniquity of his father's house and his mother's idolatry, grated most harshly upon the feelings of a gay young prince, and produced such a dislike towards the Presbyterian system that he never overcame his repugnance to it.

June 16, **1650** A.D.

The English Commonwealth resolved that Scotland should share its fortunes as a republic, and Cromwell, with 16,000 men, was sent across the borders to prevent the establishment of a monarchy. On marching through Berwickshire and East Lothian, he found that the country was abandoned by the population, and stripped of everything that could support a hostile army. He was therefore forced to depend upon his fleet for a supply of provisions. The Scots, under the command of David Leslie, had entrenched themselves near Edinburgh. They feared to meet the veteran 'Ironsides' of England, and trusted that hunger would drive them out of the country. This policy of inaction succeeded, for scarcity of food brought on sickness in the English camp, and Cromwell was obliged to retreat to the coast to embark his sick. Leslie, with all prudence and caution, followed the retiring enemy, carefully avoiding a battle, and at length succeeded by skilful generalship in hemming him in near Dunbar. Cromwell, with the sea on one side and a range of hills occupied by the Scots on the other, saw little chance of escape, except by embarking his infantry, and cutting his way through to England at the head of his horse. While he was pondering these things, a rash movement of the Scottish army placed them in his power. The Presbyterian clergy who accompanied Leslie thought themselves better soldiers than their general, and

insisted that he should go down into the plain and fight the English. When Cromwell heard that his foes were leaving their fastnesses, he shouted, 'God is delivering them into our hands;' and immediately proceeded to draw out his men in order of battle. At daybreak, as the sun showed his orb on the surface of the sea, Cromwell said, in the hearing of his men, 'Let the Lord arise, and let His enemies be scattered!' His veterans made short work of Leslie's raw levies, and in the **Battle of Dunbar**, the Scots lost 3,000 men and 10,000 prisoners, with all their ammunition and ordnance. Many of the captives were transported to the settlements in America, and sold as slaves. After this defeat, Edinburgh opened its gates, and all Scotland south of the Forth submitted to the conqueror.

Sept. 3, **1650** A.D.

Entry of the Scots into England. Battle of Worcester.

Though the south of Scotland was in the hands of the English, the Scots refused to accept a republican government, and, to show their determination, they resolved to crown Charles. Just about this time, the prince, disgusted with the severity of his Presbyterian friends, attempted to escape to the Royalists in the Highlands, in the hope of raising an army to fight his own battles in his own way. Disappointed in his expectations, he was easily persuaded to return. This **Start**, as it was called, was of some use in causing him to be treated with more consideration. On the following New Year's day he was crowned at Scone, after swearing to observe the Covenant. The king then joined Leslie's army at Stirling, which was strongly entrenched, and confronted by Cromwell's victorious troops. The English general at length crossed the Forth for the purpose of cutting off the supplies from the Scottish army. Charles, endangered by this movement, adopted the bold and decisive measure of invading England, hoping to rouse his friends before Cromwell could overtake him. But the English Cavaliers were unprepared for this enterprise, and were little able to give their prince any help. Charles,

entering England at Carlisle, in three weeks reached the city of **Worcester**, where he was brought to bay by the pursuing enemy, and utterly defeated, in spite of the gallant resistance of his men. Three thousand Scots lay dead on the field, and 10,000 were taken prisoners. Of the latter, 1,500 were given to the Guinea merchants to be employed as slaves in the African gold mines, and most of the remainder were transported to America and Barbadoes. Charles escaped from the field of Worcester with some Scottish horse, and for a month wandered up and down the Midland counties in various disguises. At one time he was compelled to take refuge in the boughs of a spreading oak-tree, whence he could see the red-coats of Cromwell's soldiers scouring the wood in pursuit of him. At another time he rode before a lady in the quality of a groom, while his friend Lord Wilmot followed on horseback, with hawk on his wrist and dogs at his heels, under the pretence of sporting, but in reality keeping guard over his royal master. After many romantic adventures and hair-breadth escapes, Charles reached Shoreham, in Sussex, where he found a coal vessel, which landed him safely at Fécamp, in France. Though more than forty persons had been privy to his escape, and Parliament had offered 1,000*l.* for his capture, not one attempted to betray him.

Sept. 3, **1651** A.D.

The defeat at Worcester was the death-blow to the Royalist party in Scotland, and General Monk, who had been left in charge by Cromwell, soon reduced that kingdom to profound submission.

War with Holland.

After the subjugation of Ireland and Scotland, a naval war arose between England and Holland. The governments of the two countries had been for some time on a very unfriendly footing. William Prince of Orange, the head of the Dutch Republic, had married the daughter of Charles I., and therefore the proceedings of the English Parliament found little favour in his eyes. The Royalists

found in Holland a welcome and a refuge; and when Dr. Dorislaus, the English envoy, was assassinated, the Dutch allowed the murderers to escape. The Prince of Orange died in 1650, but the Government of Holland continued as unfriendly as before. The English Parliament then aimed a deadly blow at Dutch commerce by passing the celebrated **Navigation Act**, which enacted that no production of Europe should be imported to England except in English ships, or ships belonging to the country which furnished the production. (October 9, 1651.) Ill-will ended in an open rupture, which was brought about by a disagreement between the English and Dutch admirals in the Channel off Dover. **Blake**, the English admiral, insisted that the Dutch should strike their topmasts to his flag, in acknowledgment of the old sovereignty of the nation over the narrow seas. **Van Tromp**, the Dutch commander, of course refused, and in answer to a shot from Blake's ship, fired a broadside at him. A general action followed, in which the Dutch were worsted, and lost two ships. (May 19, 1652.) War was then formally declared between the two countries.

Blake obtained a victory over the Dutch in the Downs under the famous commanders **De Ruyter** and **De Witt** (September 28), but a month later Van Tromp, with 90 sail, came down upon an English fleet of 37 near the Goodwin Sands, and inflicted upon it a severe defeat. Blake fought on till darkness enabled him to escape; while Van Tromp was so elated with his victory that he sailed up the Channel with a broom hoisted at the mast-head of his ship, to signify his intention of sweeping the English navy from the seas. But he altogether mistook the spirit and resources of the people with whom he had to deal. Early in the following year, Blake met him again off **Portland**, and commenced a running fight, which lasted for three days. (February 18, 1653.) At the end of this time, the Dutch loss amounted to 41 vessels and 3,500 men; and on the return of Van Tromp, crest-fallen and humbled, the people of Holland were bitterly disappointed. A few months later, their brave admiral tried once more the fortunes of

war; but off the **North Foreland**, he lost, in a battle of two days, 21 sail and many prisoners. (June 2 and 3.) He then withdrew to the Texel, where he was closely blockaded by the English fleet under Monk and Penn, as Blake was ill on shore. Here a battle raged for three days, during which Van Tromp fell shot through the heart, and most of his fleet were destroyed. (July 29.) This decisive action put an end to the conflict.

War was concluded by the **Treaty of Westminster**, by which the Dutch promised to give no aid or encouragement to English Royalists, to pay the usual honours to the flag of the Commonwealth, and to pay the just claims of certain English merchants. (April 1654.)

First Expulsion of the 'Rump.'

In the last year of the Dutch war, another revolution took place in England. The remnant of the Long Parliament had agreed in 1651 to dissolve itself about the end of the year 1654, and in the meantime to take measures for establishing a just and stable government. But after the settlement of the affairs of Ireland and Scotland, it became very jealous of the power of the army, and fearful of the ambitious schemes of Cromwell. It was therefore anxious to reduce the numbers of the soldiers before taking into consideration the question of its own dissolution. But the 'Rump' forgot that it had been placed in authority by the army, and that its existence depended upon the will of the soldiers, and when it urged the reduction of the military, its own power was immediately called in question. In this dilemma, the House of Commons, so-called, adopted the resolution of bringing into the new Parliament a number of Presbyterians, under the name of 'Neutrals;' but this proposal was most objectionable to Cromwell and his men. While the House was debating this question, Oliver entered, and after awhile stood up and addressed the members, rebuking one and another for their self-interest and faults. 'But,' said he, 'the Lord has done with you, and has chosen other

April 20, 1653 A.D.

instruments for carrying on his work that are more worthy.' A member complained of such language from their own servant. 'Come, come, sir,' said Cromwell, darting forward; 'I'll put an end to your prating; you are no Parliament; get ye gone! Give way to honester men.' Then stamping with his foot heavily upon the floor, the door opened, and the musketeers, who had been waiting for the signal, rushed in. 'Take him down,' said Cromwell, pointing at the Speaker; and then upbraiding this member as a drunkard and another as an adulterer, he walked up to the table where the mace lay, and, pointing to it, said, 'Take away this bauble.' Vane, the greatest of the Commonwealth men, indignant at this violence, said, 'This is not honest; yea, it is against morality and common honesty.' 'Sir Harry Vane, Sir Harry Vane! the Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!' was the general's retort. Having thus cleared the House, the doors were locked, and Cromwell, with the keys in his pocket, returned to the palace of Whitehall, where he and his family had taken up their residence.

The Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell.

Cromwell, by the expulsion of the 'Rump,' became sole master of the destinies of England. Eight leading officers of the army and four civilians formed with him a Council of State; but to quiet the country, directions were sent to the ministers of churches throughout England to select the names of such men as were reputed 'faithful, fearing God, and hating covetousness,' and transmit the list to the Council. In this way 139 persons were selected, to whom the chief authority was given for a term of fifteen months. This assembly contained many men of ability and distinction, and was commonly called the **Little Parliament.** It also received the nickname of **Barebone's Parliament,** from the name of one of its prominent members, called *Praise-God Barebone*, a leather-seller in London. It first met in July 1653, and proceeded to business with zeal, if not with wisdom. Its intended

reforms were of such a sweeping description as to alarm all who had any stake in the country, and Cromwell himself was so ashamed of the absurdity of some of their proposed measures, that at the end of five months he dismissed the Assembly. Its proposal to make marriage a civil contract, which might be entered into before a magistrate, was the only act that came into effect.

After the dissolution of the Little Parliament, the Council of State proceeded to invest Cromwell with the power of a king, under the name of **Lord-Protector.** A grand procession was formed from Whitehall to Westminster Hall, where the Lord-General took his seat in a chair of state, surrounded by the judges, the chief officers of the army, and the dignitaries of the City. There General Lambert, in the name of the army and the three kingdoms, prayed him to take the office of Protector of the Commonwealth. He accepted the dignity, and promised to rule according to a document placed in his hands, called the **Instrument of Government,** which provided that there should be a Parliament every three years, to sit not less than five months; that 400 members should be returned for England, and 30 each for Scotland and Ireland; that an army of 30,000 men should be maintained; that freedom of religion should be granted to all except Papists and Prelatists, and that the office of Protector should be elective. Cromwell then returned to Whitehall with regal pomp and power, preceded by the Lord Mayor carrying the sword of state, while the soldiers shouted and the great guns fired. Next day the Protectorate was proclaimed by sound of trumpet in the chief places of the City, as if a king had ascended the throne.

Dec. 16. **1653** A.D.

In the following year a Parliament was summoned, according to the articles of the Instrument of Government But as it was not altogether favourable to the Protector's authority, it was dissolved after sitting five months. Cromwell now followed in the steps of Charles I., and ruled some time without a Parliament. Like that unfortunate king, he was driven to illegal acts of government to maintain his

authority, and became more hateful to the nation than the sovereign whom he had helped to destroy. Discontented republicans swelled the ranks of the Royalists, and intrigues and plots were general in almost every county; but spies kept him well informed, and every attempt at insurrection was at once nipped in the bud. To ensure the maintenance of his authority, the whole country was divided into eleven districts, and each placed under the command of a major-general with almost unlimited power. Resistance was hopeless; men were fined and imprisoned contrary to law, and some were sent as slaves to Barbadoes. One plan only remained to upset this military despotism, that of assassination; but Cromwell was too vigilant to be caught off his guard, and 'whenever he moved beyond the walls of his palace, the drawn swords and cuirasses of his trusty bodyguards encompassed him thick on every side.'

The Protector's foreign policy was as vigorous as his home government. He upheld the honour of England abroad in such a manner as to win the praise of his most bitter enemies. He dictated peace to Holland; he destroyed the nests of pirates on the Barbary coasts; he vanquished the Spaniards by land and sea, and took from them the island of Jamaica; and he received from the French, for his help against Spain, the fortress of Dunkirk. Blake bravely maintained the honour of the English flag, and made it supreme on the ocean. The Protestants of the Alps sought Cromwell's protection against the persecution of the Duke of Savoy; and the Pope himself, dreading the Protector's threats, was forced to moderate the religious zeal of popish princes.

In spite of the well-known discontent of the nation, Cromwell, relying upon the influence of his major-generals, ventured to call a second Parliament in 1656. Above ninety members, duly returned by their constituents, were prevented from taking their seats because of their known opposition to the Protector's arbitrary government. In the following year the remaining members proposed that Cromwell should take the title of 'king;' and most likely he would have done so, if he could have relied upon the

support of the army; but wanting this, he was compelled to decline the honour. The Parliament, however, confirmed him in his dignity, and presented to him a new scheme of government, called the **Humble Petition and Advice.** According to this, he was still to retain the title of 'Lord-Protector,' with the right of naming his successor, and power was given him to create a House of Peers. He was inaugurated anew in Westminster Hall with all the pomp of a king, and an oath of allegiance was taken by every member of the Parliament to him singly, without any mention of the Commonwealth. The new House of Peers was composed of sixty members. A few were noblemen and country gentlemen, but the majority were officers of the army, of whom several were low-born, ignorant, and insolent men. Colonel Pride, for instance, had been a drayman, and another lucky officer a shoemaker. Early in 1658 the House of Commons reassembled, and the members previously excluded took their seats; but Cromwell found it so opposed to his House of Peers that he angrily dissolved it. Henceforward, to the day of his death, the Protector ruled alone.

June 26, **1657** A.D.

Last Days of Cromwell. His Death and Character.

Cromwell's latter days were clouded with many cares and fears. Royalists, Presbyterians, and disappointed republicans conspired against his life; and though he vigorously suppressed every plot, yet the knowledge that his life was in constant danger made him morose and melancholy. Pamphlets urging his assassination, and showing that with reference to him 'killing was no murder,' preyed much upon his mind. He wore armour under his clothes, carried pistols in his pocket, frequently changed his bedroom, travelled with the greatest speed, always well guarded, and never returned by the same way, if it could be avoided. Domestic affliction, too, added to his troubles. The death of his favourite daughter, Mrs. Claypole, who on her sick-bed remonstrated with him for his past misconduct, pressed heavily on his heart. Anxiety and trouble

at last wore out his strength, and a slow fever, ending in a tertian ague, carried him off, in the sixtieth year of his age, on the anniversary of his decisive victories of Dunbar and Worcester. He was buried with regal pomp in Westminster Abbey; but on the accession of Charles II., his body was disinterred, and hanged on Tyburn gallows. Cromwell possessed talents of the highest order. He was gifted with military genius, energy, a strong will, and a keen insight into human nature. Though stern and unyielding in public affairs, he was most affectionate in his domestic relations, and his private life was free from reproach. In personal appearance he was heavy and clownish; in manners and speech, rough and harsh.

Sept. 3, 1658 A.D.

His wife, Elizabeth Bourchier, daughter of an Essex gentleman, bore him five sons and four daughters; but of the former, only two survived him, Richard and Henry.

Protectorate of Richard Cromwell. Convention Parliament. Monarchy Restored.

Richard Cromwell, the eldest surviving son of Oliver, was proclaimed Protector, on his father's death, without the slightest opposition. A Parliament was summoned in his name, and on its assembling the old quarrels between it and the army broke out afresh. The leading officers, fearful of the loss of their influence, intrigued to retain the power of the sword, and one of them especially, named Lambert, hoped to take the place of the late Protector. Richard lacked his father's energy and ability, and was unable to withstand the pressure these officers put upon him. Under their advice, he dissolved the Parliament. It was then resolved to recall the 'Rump,' which had been expelled by Oliver Cromwell in 1653; but Richard, finding himself powerless to restrain the intrigues of the military cabal, resigned his office, after holding it five months, and retired into private life. He died in 1712, on his estate at Cheshunt, in Hertfordshire.

May 25, 1659 A.D.

On the restoration of the Long Parliament, the old quarrel with the army revived. The leading officers wished to rule the nation through the House of Commons, and thus be the masters, and not the servants, of the State. Disappointed in this scheme, General Lambert, imitating the example of Oliver Cromwell, expelled the members by military force. (October 13, 1659.) The government of the country fell thus into the hands of the army, from which a 'Committee of Safety' was elected to take charge of public affairs.

Anarchy now threatened the nation, which seemed entirely at the mercy of military despots. The people, everywhere in dread of the rule of fanatical soldiery, and heartily sick of a Commonwealth government, turned with longing eyes to the exiled royal house. Disunion in the army saved the country from military despotism. The soldiers in Scotland under General Monk, feeling jealous of the authority assumed by their comrades in the south, resolved to interfere. Monk, at the beginning of the civil war, had borne arms for Charles I., but falling into the hands of the Roundheads at Nantwich, he attached himself to Cromwell, and by skill and courage obtained a foremost place in the Parliamentary army. On the overthrow of Richard Cromwell, he saw that England's safety depended upon the restoration of the royal family; and suspecting Lambert's ambition, he resolved to march to London, on the pretext of supporting the Rump Parliament. In the meanwhile, this Assembly, taking advantage of disunion amongst the soldiers, had come together again, and awaited with some anxiety the arrival of the army from Scotland. Monk entered London at the head of 7,000 veteran troops (February 3, 1660), and declared for a free Parliament. As soon as this was made known, the whole nation seemed wild with delight. 'The bells of all England rang joyously; the gutters ran with ale; and night after night the sky five miles round London was reddened by innumerable fires.' The surviving members of the Long Parliament, who had been expelled by Colonel Pride in 1648, met again in Westminster Hall. (February 21, 1660.) They decided

to appeal to the voice of the country by a general election, and in a few days finally dissolved themselves. Thus came to an end the famous 'Long Parliament,' which had existed with varied fortune for more than nineteen years.

The general election, as was expected, resulted in a House of Commons friendly to the royal family. The old peers again took their seats. The Parliament thus formed received the name of *The Convention Parliament*, because it was not called by the royal writ. This Assembly commenced its sittings April 25, 1660, and on May 1, Monk, who had been for some time in secret communication with Charles, announced that a messenger from their exiled king was at the door. The news was rapturously received, and the envoy was at once admitted. He presented to the Assembly a conciliatory letter from his royal master, and a document called the **Declaration of Breda**, in which the king promised to grant a free and general pardon to all excepting such as Parliament might exclude; to allow liberty of conscience; to leave the settlement of disputed lands to the Parliament; and to pay all arrears of pay due to the army. The Convention immediately decided to invite the king to return to his country, and a gallant fleet was sent to escort him from Holland to Dover, where he landed amidst universal rejoicing. (May 25, 1660.)

Miscellaneous Facts.

During the Commonwealth the Jews, after an exclusion of nearly three centuries, were permitted to return to England. The business of *banking* was first practised. Previous to this time people deposited their money in the Mint in the Tower, but on account of the unsettled state of the country, they intrusted their money to goldsmiths and rich merchants, who thus became the first bankers. Bitterly as the Puritans cried out against the religious intolerance of the courts of Star Chamber and High Commission under Charles I., the Commonwealth men were not a wit more tolerant. One James Naylor, a Roundhead army officer, was whipped, pilloried, branded, his tongue bored

through with a red-hot iron, and sentenced to be imprisoned for life for holding certain religious opinions. George Fox, a shoemaker of Drayton, in Leicestershire, the founder of the 'Society of Friends,' or Quakers, was also put in the stocks more than once, and imprisoned for preaching. Among the improvements of the time may be mentioned the establishment of coffee-houses in London; the invention of the air-pump; and the first manufacture of watches in England.

Oliver Cromwell.

CHARLES II.

Born 1630 A.D. Began to Reign 1649 A.D. Ascended the Throne 1660 A.D. Died 1685 A.D.

The Restoration.
Settlement of the Nation.
The Savoy Conference.
Acts of the 'Pension' Parliament.
First Dutch War.
The Great Plague and Fire of London.
Unpopularity of the Government.
The Cabal.
The Triple Alliance.
Treaty of Dover.
Second Dutch War.
Test Act.
Titus Oates and the Popish Plot
Habeas Corpus Act.
Whig and Tory.
Affairs of Scotland.
Persecution of the Covenanters.
Tory Reaction.
The Rye House Plot.
Death and Character of Charles.

Miscellaneous Facts.

The Restoration. Settlement of the Nation.

CHARLES II. landed at Dover amidst the cheers of thousands of spectators, who wept with delight at the sight of their king. The journey thence to London was one continued triumph. The country people flocked in thousands to the various towns through which his route lay, and everywhere flags waved, joy-bells rang out, and cannons roared. On May 29, his birthday, he reached the capital. The army of the Commonwealth was drawn out on Blackheath to receive their king, but their voices for the most part were silent, and their faces sad and lowering. Disunion, however, had destroyed their power, and they were helpless to stem the tide of royalty. The streets of London were lined with the city train-bands and armed bodies of men raised by loyal gentlemen; the houses were covered with

May 29, **1660** A.D.

tapestry; gay banners caught the eye in every direction; and a brilliant cavalcade of Royalists escorted the king to Whitehall. So great and general was the joy, that Charles observed, in his pleasant manner, 'It must have been my own fault that I did not come back before.'

General Monk and other agents in the Restoration were rewarded with titles and honours. Monk was created Duke of Albemarle; and the admiral of the fleet, Earl of Sandwich. Edward Hyde returned from exile with his royal master, and became Lord Chancellor, with the title of Earl of Clarendon. On the restoration of the king, the old civil polity was re-established exactly as it had been when Charles I. withdrew from London. All the Acts of the Long Parliament which had received the royal assent were confirmed. During the period of the great rebellion every department of the State had become sadly confused, and much required to be done to remedy the disorders of eighteen years. Four great questions for the settlement of the nation immediately occupied the attention of the Convention Parliament: (1) the king's revenue; (2) disputes concerning property; (3) Church matters; and (4) a general pardon for political offences.

An income of 1,200,000*l.* was settled upon the king, and the tenure of land by knight service was abolished for ever. This last relic of the feudal system, by which a landed proprietor had to pay into the royal treasury a large fine on coming to his property, had continued down to the civil war, and perished with the monarchy. It was now solemnly abolished by statute. About the same time the army, amounting to 50,000 men, was disbanded. The soldiers quickly settled down to peaceful occupations, and gave proofs of the rigid discipline under which they had been held, by the diligence, industry, and sobriety that marked their conduct as citizens.

The settlement of disputes concerning property was a difficult matter. Lands belonging to the crown, the Church, and private persons, had changed hands during the late troubles, and it was not easy to make restitution and redress. It ended, however, in the original owners taking

possession of their property, and leaving those who had bought lands to seek redress in the law courts.

Church matters were in the greatest confusion. The old law declared government by bishops to be the rule of the English Church, while the Presbyterian system had been established by the Parliament during the civil war. The latter ceased to have any authority on the restoration of the monarchy, and the old law remained in force. It seemed therefore just that those Episcopal clergymen who had been turned out of their livings during the Commonwealth should be restored. The Convention Parliament had debated this question even before the return of the king; and they decided to restore the ejected ministers, and confirm the Presbyterians and others then in possession against whom there was no claimant living to dispute their right. It still remained to be settled whether the public service of the Church should be performed by all clergymen according to the Liturgy or their own consciences. This question was decided in the next Parliament.

The Convention decided to bring to trial the murderers of Charles I. Twenty-nine were condemned, but only ten suffered the penalty of death. Among these were General Harrison, and Hugh Peters, one of Cromwell's chaplains. Some time afterwards three other regicides, who had been seized in Holland, were executed. Sir Harry Vane and General Lambert, though they had no share in the late king's death, were excepted from the royal clemency, and were condemned for serving a republican government. Their condemnation was unlawful, but they were thought men of too great importance to escape punishment. Vane met his death calmly on Tower Hill, while Lambert was reprieved and confined for life in the island of Guernsey. Neither did the dead escape the vindictiveness of the Royalists. The bodies of Bradshaw, Ireton, and Cromwell were taken from their tombs in Westminster Abbey, drawn on hurdles to Tyburn, hanged on a gallows till the evening, and then decapitated. Their heads were fixed on Westminster Hall, and their trunks thrown into a pit. The Convention Parliament, having disposed of the

affairs requiring immediate attention, was dismissed at the close of the year.

In Scotland, the Restoration was hailed with as much enthusiasm as in England. An obsequious Parliament annulled all the Acts that had been passed since the commencement of the civil war. The Marquis of Argyle, who had placed the crown on Charles's head at Scone, suffered death for his share in the great rebellion.

In Ireland, Episcopacy was restored, and the Church lands reclaimed, but many of those who had been dispossessed of their property never regained their rights. The Marquis of Ormond, who had fought so bravely in the cause of the Stuarts, became lord-lieutenant of that country

The Savoy Conference. Acts of the 'Pension' Parliament.

Religious affairs in England were in a sad state of confusion. Though the Bishops and ejected clergy had been restored on the king's return, and the Liturgy had again come into lawful use, the Independent and Presbyterian ministers, who were allowed to retain their livings, expected that such changes would be made in the Episcopal system and the Prayer Book as would satisfy their consciences. Charles, however, though he had promised to respect the scruples of the Presbyterians, detested their system, and was determined to establish Episcopacy in all its fulness To reunite the Puritans to the Church Establishment, a Conference was held at the **Savoy** Palace, in which twelve bishops and twelve leading Presbyterian divines discussed their differences. The latter urged against the ceremonies of the Church all the old objections that had been raised in Elizabeth's time. One of their number, Baxter, would not allow that the Liturgy could be amended at all, and proposed that one of his own composition should be accepted instead. The Conference, conducted with much bitterness on both sides, broke up in anger, and widened still further the breach between the two great religious parties in the State.

May **1661** A.D.

About this time Charles met his new Parliament, which was chiefly composed of Royalists, so great had been the reaction in the country. This Assembly lasted till the beginning of 1679, and earned the name of the 'Pension' Parliament, on account of the bribes many of its members received from the kings of England and France. After settling the rights of the Crown, its first Acts were directed

1661 A.D. to crush the power of the Puritans. First came the **Corporation Act**, which struck at the power of the Dissenters in corporate towns, where their influence was very great. It provided that no person could hold any office of trust in corporations unless he had taken the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper according to the rites of the Church of England within twelve months of his election; and it enjoined all such persons to abjure the League and Covenant, and to take an oath against the lawfulness of bearing arms against the king.

Next came the **Act of Uniformity,** which required all clergymen to declare publicly their assent and consent to everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer; to receive ordination at Episcopal hands; to abjure the Cove-

May 29, 1662 A.D. nant; and take the oath of non-resistance, on pain of being deprived of their livings. When the feast of St. Bartholomew came round, which was the last day fixed for taking the oath, nearly 2,000 ministers, to their honour, resigned their benefices rather than submit to the Act. They were afterwards known as **Nonconformists.** It must be remembered that during the great rebellion a far greater number of Royalist divines were ejected from their livings, but, on the whole, they were better treated than those deprived on St. Bartholomew's day.

The Nonconformist ministers opened separate places of worship, much to the annoyance of the more intolerant members of the Royalist party. Rumours were set afloat that people attended these chapels for the purpose of foment-

1664 A.D. ing conspiracies and insurrections, and, in consequence, Parliament passed the **Conventicle Act.** It enacted that all persons above sixteen years

of age present at any religious meeting, other than that of the Church of England, where five persons besides the family were assembled, should be imprisoned three months for the first offence, six for the second, and for the third be transported seven years. Six years later, a second Conventicle Act reduced the penalty on hearers, but inflicted fines on preachers and those who allowed their houses to be used as conventicles.

This intolerant and severe law produced, as might be expected, great discontent amongst Dissenters, but their disaffection only brought down upon them harsher measures. Accused of seditious practices, they were further repressed by the passing of the **Five-Mile Act.** 1665 A.D. It forbade all Nonconformist ministers, who refused to take the oath of non-resistance to the king, to come within five miles of any city, corporate town, or borough sending members to Parliament, under penalty of fine and imprisonment. They were also prohibited from teaching in schools.

First Dutch War.

This war was occasioned by the commercial rivalry of the two nations. An 'African Company,' of which the Duke of York, the king's brother, was governor, came into collision with the Dutch settlements on the Guinea coast; but this was scarcely any cause of war. It has been said that Charles desired hostilities, that he might have an opportunity of appropriating a portion of the money voted by Parliament to his own purposes.

War was declared against Holland in 1665, though hostilities had commenced in the summer of the previous year, when the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam, in America, since called *New York*, was captured by an English squadron. In the spring, the Duke of York put to sea with a gallant fleet of 98 ships, and gained a great victory over the Dutch off Lowestoft. 1665 A.D. The victors lost one ship and 600 men, while the enemy's loss amounted to 18 ships, 4 admirals, and 7,000

men taken or slain. In the following year France came to the help of Holland, and declared war against England. Prince Rupert was sent with a squadron to meet the Toulon fleet, and, during his absence, the Duke of Albemarle, with 54 sail, suddenly came upon a Dutch fleet of 80 ships off the North Foreland under the command of De Witt and De Ruyter. A battle lasting four days took place, and Albemarle was only saved from destruction by the timely arrival of Prince Rupert. (June 1–4, 1666.) The Dutch on this occasion had the best of the encounter, though the English fought so bravely as to win applause even from their enemies. 'They may be killed,' said De Witt, 'but they will not be conquered.' In the following month another battle in the same waters ended in a decisive victory for the English, who followed the Dutch to their own coasts, and burnt in the harbour of Schelling 150 merchant ships. De Witt swore that he would have his revenge; and in the next year his desire of vengeance was gratified. The money voted for the conduct of the war was diverted to support the extravagance of Charles's court, and the ships of war were left unrepaired and the dockyards unguarded. Early in 1667 De Witt and De Ruyter sailed up the Thames, and, meeting with scarcely any opposition, destroyed Sheerness, burnt the ships of war lying at Chatham, and advanced as far as Tilbury Fort. De Witt, having taken his revenge, fortunately retired with the tide; and, until peace was concluded, the Dutch fleet swept the Channel unopposed. The war was brought to an end by the *Treaty of Breda.* (July 21, 1667.)

The Great Plague and Fire of London.

During the Dutch war London was visited with two dreadful calamities, a pestilence and a fire. The summer of 1665 was very hot, and the narrow streets of London, with their bad drainage and ill-ventilated houses, fostered epidemics. A few cases of plague had occurred in the previous winter, but as spring advanced, the disease broke

out with a violence unknown for three centuries. At the first alarm, the court, the nobility, and the rich citizens, fled out of London. The people followed in great numbers, carrying infection with them to other places, till the authorities stopped the tide of emigration. Many parts of the city were deserted; business was at a standstill, and grass grew in the streets. Every house containing the plague was closed for a month, and a red cross put upon the door, with the words above it, 'Lord, have mercy upon us!' The dead-cart went its dismal rounds at night, when no other sound was heard in the deserted streets save the heavy rumbling of the wheels, and the voice of the bellman, crying, 'Bring out your dead!' The bodies were thrown, without coffin or funeral rites, into common pits in the neighbouring churchyards. The number of deaths increased with the autumn sun, till, in September, they amounted to more than a thousand daily. This dreadful calamity drove the reckless into the wildest dissipation, while others waited their fate with calm resignation. The pestilence was ascribed to the wickedness of the times, and men might be seen daily going through the city pronouncing in sepulchral voice the awful judgments of God. The death-rates gradually decreased after the equinoctial gales, and in December London was declared free of the plague. More than 100,000 are said to have perished in the capital alone, and a great number died in other cities and towns.

1665 A.D.

In the following year London was visited with a fire such as was not known in Europe for many centuries. It began on Sunday night, September 2, in a baker's shop in Pudding Lane, near London Bridge. The houses in that locality were all built of wood, and the streets were narrow. A strong east wind was blowing, and the water-pipes were empty, so that everything favoured the spread of the flames. For three days the fire raged unchecked, till the whole city, from London Bridge to Temple Bar, was one heap of ashes, and a week elapsed before the flames were extinguished. More than 200,000 people were rendered houseless, and forced to take refuge

1666 A.D.

in the fields round London, where the lurid glare of the burning city turned night into day. St. Paul's Cathedral, eighty-nine churches, and about 400 streets, containing more than 13,000 houses, were destroyed. The fire, though a dreadful calamity at the time, purified the city from the plague, and gave an opportunity for making wider streets, and buildings of brick instead of wood. A new cathedral was erected on the site of Old St. Paul's, by the famous architect, Sir Christopher Wren. The popular prejudices of the time ascribed the origin of the fire to the Roman Catholics, and on the Monument, raised by Wren to commemorate this calamity, an inscription to that effect was placed. This statement was only removed a few years ago.

Unpopularity of the Government. The Cabal. The Triple Alliance. Treaty of Dover.

The unbounded joy which hailed the Restoration was followed by general discontent. The Presbyterians were driven by disappointment and persecution to regard the government as a monstrous evil. A large body of Royalists, whose fortunes had been spent in the king's cause, were left unrewarded, and they complained bitterly of the ingratitude of a sovereign for whom they had suffered so much. The king's private life, besides, caused dissatisfaction amongst all right-thinking men. The court was known to be one wild scene of profligacy and debauchery, where virtue was a bye-word, and religion a subject of ridicule. Affairs of State were disregarded; money which ought to be devoted to the good of the public service was squandered in vicious pleasures, and the national honour was sacrificed to wine, wit, and beauty. Dunkirk, won by Cromwell from Spain, was sold to the King of France for a trifling sum, and the war-ships of England were sent to sea leaky and ill-manned. The misery caused by the plague and the fire of London increased the general discontent; and when an enemy's guns in the Dutch war were heard in the city, while the king was wasting his time in gaiety

and frivolity, popular indignation found vent in angry murmurs.

Charles found it necessary to appease the anger of his people by sacrificing his chief minister, Clarendon, to their wrath. That nobleman had directed the affairs of the king both before and after his restoration, and had become allied to the royal family by the marriage of his daughter Anne with James Duke of York. Though he had served the Stuart cause well, Charles did not like him. Their characters had nothing in common; Clarendon's gravity of manner and religious principles were distasteful to a king whose whole life was one whirl of wicked pleasures; and his remonstrances at court only raised up bitter enemies. The Cavaliers blamed him for the king's ingratitude; the Presbyterians said he was the cause of their troubles; and the House of Commons made him responsible for the disasters of the Dutch war. From all these enemies escape from ruin was impossible, and Clarendon, having fled from the country to save his life, was doomed by Act of Parliament to perpetual exile. (November 29, 1667.) He spent the remainder of his years in writing the 'History of the Great Rebellion,' and died at Rouen in 1674.

The ministry that was formed after the banishment of the Earl of Clarendon is known as the **Cabal,** because the initial letters of the names of five of its chief members formed that word—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale. These advisers, by their dishonourable conduct and efforts tc overthrow the liberties of the country, formed one of the most disgraceful administrations in our history, and made the word 'cabal' a term of lasting reproach. One of its first measures, however, promised well, and tended to make the court popular. It formed a coalition with Holland and Sweden, called the **Triple Alliance,** for the purpose of checking the conquests of France in Flanders. Louis XIV. was then on the French throne, and under his rule France became the most formidable power in Europe. It was the wish of his heart to extend his dominions towards the Rhine, and for this end he had entered upon a war with

1668 A.D.

Spain. The States of Holland saw with fear the victorious arms of France advancing eastwards, and they alone were unable to check the tide of French conquest. The English people viewed with jealousy the progress of their powerful neighbour, and the sale of Dunkirk and the part which Louis had played in the Dutch war increased their ill-will. The Triple Alliance, therefore, was most popular with all classes. In the face of this coalition, the French king reluctantly concluded the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which he consented to give up a great portion of the territory occupied by his armies, on condition of retaining Lille, Tournay, and other places in the Spanish Netherlands.

Charles did not share his subjects' jealousy of France. From the time of his restoration he had always held the closest relations with the French court, and the changed feelings of the English people towards him tended to strengthen this friendship. A powerful body, called the Country Party, had been now formed in the House of Commons, which, disgusted with the licentiousness of the court, desired to check the king's extravagance. Charles could neither stand their interference nor their sneers, and he determined, if possible, to free himself from parliamentary control. For this end he entered into secret negotiations with the King of France for aid in arms and money, even when his own minister at the Hague was concluding the Triple Alliance. Louis, delighted at the prospect of reducing England to the rank of a vassal kingdom, sent over to London a handsome, licentious, and crafty Frenchwoman to inveigle Charles into his toils. Madame Carwell, as this woman was called, soon reigned supreme at the English court; she was created Duchess of Portsmouth, and by her influence thoroughly succeeded in furthering the French king's plans. The negotiations between the two crowns ended in the secret **Treaty of Dover.** There Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans, met her brother King Charles, and concluded this disgraceful treaty, by which he bound himself to become a Roman Catholic and the ally of France against Holland,

May, **1670** A.D.

and to assist Louis in his designs upon the throne of Spain. In return for such help, he was to receive annually a pension of 200,000*l.*, and the aid of 6,000 French troops if any insurrection should break out in England. It was further stipulated that a part of the province of Zealand should be given up to England when the conquest of Holland was effected. This treaty, though suspected soon after, was not actually brought to light till the close of the last century.

Second Dutch War. Test Act.

The cause of the second war with Holland is to be found in the treaty of Dover; but Charles assigned such reasons as commercial disputes and the refusal of the Dutch to honour the English flag.

Before hostilities commenced, Charles was anxious to increase his fleet, and, by professing great zeal for the principles of the Triple Alliance, he obtained from the House of Commons a vote of 800,000*l.*, and then instantly prorogued the Parliament. But as this was not enough for his schemes, he closed the exchequer, and refused to pay the money which bankers had lent to the Government. London goldsmiths had been in the habit of advancing loans on condition of receiving payment and interest from the revenue, and suddenly it was coolly announced that the principal could not be paid. Thus 1,300,000*l.* fell into the king's hands; but many commercial houses were ruined, and trade was paralysed.

About the same time, several proclamations were issued relating to matters which only Parliaments could deal with, and amongst these was a Declaration of Indulgence, or suspension of all penal laws in religion. This 'Declaration' was proclaimed in accordance with the spirit of the Treaty of Dover, to favour Roman Catholics, and it was received with suspicion even by the Protestant Dissenters, whom it also protected.

Before war with Holland was formally declared, another most disgraceful act was done by the government. Though

the Triple Alliance was then in force, an English squadron was sent out to seize the richly laden Dutch fleet on the way home from the Mediterranean. The latter, however, suspicious of the honourable dealing of the English Government, were on the alert, and safely carried into port all their ships excepting four, which became the prize of the royal pirate fleet of England. War was then declared,

1672 A.D. and a naval battle took place in **Southwold Bay**, in which the English, though successful, were severely handled. On land, a small English force was sent to co-operate with the French in an invasion of Holland. Town after town opened its gates, till the watchfires of the army of France could be seen from Amsterdam. The House of Austria, in alarm, sent its troops to the Rhine to stem the tide of French conquest. The spirit of the Dutch arose with their danger; and electing William Prince of Orange as their Stadtholder, the people rallied round him in defence of their independence. Louis was driven to act upon the defensive; the dykes were opened, and the whole country put under water; and the invaders were compelled to beat a hasty retreat.

Charles could give his friend little help. All the money obtained by fraud and pillage had been spent, and there was no other way of getting more except through a Parliament. This Assembly was called together early in 1673, and at once opposed the king's home policy. Suspicious of Roman Catholic intrigues, it compelled the Government to withdraw the Declaration of Indulgence, and forced the king to consent to a famous law, called the **Test Act**, which continued in force down to the reign of George IV. This Act provided that all persons holding any office, civil or military, should take the oath of supremacy, should sign a declaration against transubstantiation, and should publicly receive the Sacrament accord-

1673 A.D. ing to the rites of the Church of England. This was a sad blow to the Romanising tendency of the court, and the Duke of York and other Roman Catholics were thus driven from office. The House of Commons then pressed the king to make peace with Holland,

threatening to withhold supplies if he should refuse honourable terms. Charles was therefore obliged to give up for the present all thoughts of fulfilling the treaty of Dover, and to make peace with the Dutch. By the *Treaty of Westminster*, the war was brought to a close on terms very satisfactory to the English king, for he thereby received 200,000*l.* in lieu of all claims. (February 9, 1674.) In the same year the 'Cabal' Ministry was broken up. France continued the war till 1678, when it was concluded by the peace of Nimeguen.

Titus Oates and the Popish Plot. Habeas Corpus Act. Whig and Tory.

The alliance of Charles with such a powerful Roman Catholic prince as Louis of France aroused the suspicions of his subjects, and increased their jealousy of Romanism. Rumours were also in circulation about the king's secret treaty; and when the Duke of York openly avowed his conversion to popery, the people were ready to believe any story of Roman Catholic intrigues. A man of worthless character, named **Titus Oates,** taking advantage of the state of the public mind, gave out that he had discovered a popish plot, which had for its object the assassination of the king, and the accession of James Duke of York, on condition of his aiding in the destruction of Protestantism. In the time of the Commonwealth Oates had been a preacher, and had afterwards taken orders in the Church of England; but having been indicted for perjury, he was deprived of his cure. He then joined the Church of Rome, and resided some time on the Continent in colleges belonging to the Jesuits. Here, no doubt, he heard many plans discussed for the recovery of England to the popish faith; and though there was a conspiracy really in existence against Protestantism, as the secret treaty of Dover proves, yet Oates had no other ground for his reputed discovery than the hope of gain. Amongst those accused was Edward Coleman, the Duke of

1678 A.D.

York's secretary. Search was at once made for his papers, and letters were found addressed to Father la Chaise, confessor of Louis XIV., which seemed to confirm the evidence of Oates. Just then an event occurred which favoured the story of the plot. Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey, the justice of the peace who had taken the depositions of Oates against Coleman, was found dead in a ditch near Primrose Hill, with a sword run through his body. His murder was at once ascribed to the Papists, and the whole nation was aroused to the highest pitch of excitement. London was one scene of wild alarm. Armed train-bands patrolled the city, and no citizen ventured into the streets without some weapon or other. So great was the panic, that the Roman Catholic peers were for the first time excluded from Parliament, and the gaols filled with Papists. Oates became quite a hero; his story was everywhere believed; he was hailed as the saviour of his country, and lodgings, with a pension of 1,200*l.* a year, were assigned him at Whitehall. Allured by the hope of similar rewards, other disreputable characters, as Bedloe and Dugdale, came forward with fresh tales. On the evidence of this worthless band of informers, Coleman and several Jesuits were sent to the scaffold. Oates even had the audacity to accuse the queen herself at the bar of the House of Commons, but the Lords indignantly rejected the charge. Amongst many who suffered for these imaginary plots, the last and noblest was the aged Viscount Stafford.

Charles hoped to stem the tide of persecution by dissolving the Parliament, which had sat for more than seventeen years; but the new one was still more hostile and violent. Alarmed at the religious views of the Duke of York, the House of Commons proceeded to pass a bill for his exclusion from the throne. Charles offered to give any security for the Protestant religion which Parliament might think necessary, provided the succession to the throne should be left untouched. The Exclusion Bill, however, was pressed, but its progress was stopped by the dissolution of Parliament. (May 1679.)

To this Assembly we owe the famous **Habeas Corpus Act**, which is considered next in importance to Magna Charta. Under former sovereigns persons might be imprisoned any length of time before being brought to trial. Thus Raleigh and Laud remained in confinement for years. But the *Habeas Corpus Act* prevented this for the future. By its provisions, every prisoner had a right to be tried within a certain time after his arrest, and if once set free he could not be imprisoned for the same offence. It also provided that no inhabitant of England (unless by his own consent, or in case he have committed a capital offence in the place to which he is sent) should be imprisoned in Scotland or beyond sea.

May 1679 A.D.

The dissolution of the Parliament only increased the excitement of the nation, and the people seemed determined not to allow a Papist to ascend the throne. But there were many who supported the claims of the Duke of York, though they disliked his creed. They believed that the crown belonged to him by divine right, and they were prepared to maintain their opinions at all costs. These two factions became bitterly hostile, and in every town and village there were angry disputes, as in the days before the Great Rebellion. The opponents of the court were insultingly called **Whigs**, a word meaning *sour milk*, which had been fastened upon the Presbyterian rustics of the western Lowlands of Scotland. They retaliated by calling the ardent loyalists **Tories**, a name meaning *give me*, which had been given to the popish outlaws who infested the bogs of Ireland.

In 1680 Parliament assembled, and proceeded at once with the Exclusion Bill. It passed in the Commons by a large majority, but it was thrown out in the Lords. It was after this defeat that Viscount Stafford was brought to the block. Further violence was prevented by a dissolution; but the death of this nobleman on the evidence of Oates and his accomplices was most serviceable to the court in assisting the reaction in its favour.

Affairs of Scotland. Persecution of the Covenanters.

Great changes took place in Scotland on the Restoration. The Parliament of that country, as enthusiastic as that of England, willingly carried out the king's wishes with regard to religious questions. The Presbyterian Church government was overthrown, and the Episcopal system established in its place. James Sharpe, Presbyterian minister of Crail, who had been sent to London to look after the interests of the body to which he belonged, was persuaded to abandon his views, and was rewarded with the appointment of Archbishop of St. Andrews and Primate of Scotland. His example was quickly followed by nine others, who, like him, became bishops. So well were these changes received that even old Jenny Geddes, who had first given the signal of civil strife by flinging her stool at the Dean of Edinburgh's head, in 1637, contributed the materials of her stall and baskets towards a bonfire kindled in honour of the proceedings in Parliament and the king's coronation. After the excitement of the new order of things had passed away, many persons withdrew from the parish churches to attend the conventicles of the excluded ministers. The Episcopal courts, or Commission courts, as they were called, tried to check nonconformity by fines, imprisonment, and corporal punishment. The Earl of Lauderdale, who had been a Presbyterian, was made Chief Commissioner. The greatest opposition to the Episcopal system was found in the western Lowlands, and thither large bodies of troops were sent and quartered upon the people until all the fines were paid. These severe measures compelled the Covenanters, as the Nonconformists were called, to seek out places on the moors and hills, where they might worship according to their conscience. At length persecution drove them into insurrection, and about one thousand men marched to Edinburgh. General Dalziel, the Royalist commander, attacked them on Rullion Green, near the Pentland Hills, and quickly put them to rout. (November 1666.) About twenty persons were executed for this rising, many of whom were

previously tortured. Thumb-screws and the boot were the usual modes of torture in Scotland. The boot was a wooden case, into which the leg of the unfortunate victim was placed, and wedges were then driven down between the knee and the frame, until the whole limb was often a crushed and bleeding mass. The spirit of the Covenanters remained unbroken, in spite of the severities of the government. Religious meetings in secluded spots multiplied, and men attended them not only with the Bible in hand, but with pistol and sword to beat back the soldiery who often attacked their secret conventicles. The western counties were placed entirely at the mercy of the military, and to make matters worse, the rude Highland clans were brought down from their mountains to prey upon the Lowland farmers. This harsh treatment goaded the people to madness. In Fifeshire a band of twelve, while waiting near St. Andrews to attack one of their oppressors, met the coach of Archbishop Sharpe on Magus Moor, and suddenly resolved to murder him. The aged prelate was dragged from the carriage, and hacked to pieces in the presence of his daughter. (May 3, 1679.) This act of frenzy was followed by an insurrection. John Graham, of Claverhouse, whose dragoons were the terror of the country, set out from Glasgow to avenge the archbishop's murder. At Drumclog, near Loudon Hill, he came upon some armed insurgents; but his men, fighting at a disadvantage, were beaten back with loss. The Covenanters then marched to Glasgow, and took possession of the town. When news of this success reached London, Charles II. sent to Scotland as commander-in-chief his natural son, James Duke of Monmouth, at the head of a large body of the royal guards. The insurgents, to the number of 4,000, took post near **Bothwell Bridge**, to defend the passage of the Clyde. The battle was short and decisive. Four hundred Covenanters died on the field, and about twelve hundred were made prisoners. Of these a few were selected for execution, and the most obstinate of the remainder were sent as slaves to Barbadoes. After this the Duke of York arrived in Scot-

June 22, **1679** A.D.

land to take the reins of government, and under him persecution increased in severity. The most stubborn of the Covenanters, who were called Cameronians, from the name of one of their preachers, boldly threw off their allegiance to the king; but their conduct only increased the fire of persecution. Anyone refusing to renounce the Covenant was a suspected Cameronian, and might be put to death on the spot. The only escape from this bitter oppression lay in sullen obedience or emigration. Many set sail for the American colonies, while others waited in fear and hope for an end to their bitter trials.

Tory Reaction. The Rye House Plot. Death and Character of Charles.

The Whig party in the State drove many moderate men from their side by their attacks upon the rights of the two daughters of the Duke of York, who were zealous Protestants. It had long been rumoured that the Duke of Monmouth, the son of Charles II. by Lucy Walters, had been born in wedlock, and that if everyone had their rights he would be Prince of Wales. Charles, indeed, had brought him up with all the indulgence of a prince, and had married him while yet a youth to the heiress of the house of Buccleuch. He enjoyed the highest posts of honour in England, and nothing seemed beyond his reach, except the crown. Handsome in person, and polite and affable in manners, he won popularity wherever he went, and by the Londoners especially he was greeted with the greatest enthusiasm. Some of the leaders of the opposition to the court encouraged the popular belief in the legitimacy of Monmouth, but this policy eventually swelled the ranks of the king's party.

In 1681 another Parliament assembled at Oxford, where the Tory faction was most strong. The Whigs again had a majority in the House of Commons, and were escorted to the city by armed supporters, as if suspicious of foul play. The popish plot and the Exclusion Bill were their favourite themes of discussion; and the latter they were

determined to pass at all hazards. The only course open to the king was to dissolve the Parliament, and this was done within a week after assembling. A reaction in his favour had evidently set in. The fear first caused by the rumoured popish plot had passed away, and men began to be ashamed of their belief in the foolish tales of Oates and his accomplices. The king's determined opposition to the Exclusion Bill was warmly supported, and drew to his side the great majority of the upper and middle classes of society. Charles soon felt himself strong enough to attempt to crush the Whig leaders; and by employing informers of the same stamp as Titus Oates, he set the law in motion against his opponents. Their chief, the Earl of Shaftesbury, was accused of high treason, but the sheriffs of London, who were Whigs, named a grand jury which threw out the bill. Shaftesbury, in fear of his life, withdrew to Holland, where he died. The government, angry at the conduct of the London sheriffs, took away the charter of the city, on the plea of some irregularity, but really to prevent another defeat of its schemes. Many other towns lost their charters, and they were only restored on payment of heavy fines.

These arbitrary acts of the Government provoked the Whigs to form plots for the defence of their freedom and religion. Lord William Russell, Lord Essex, Lord Howard, the Duke of Monmouth, and Algernon Sidney, all prominent leaders of the Whig party, meditated plans of open rebellion, and bided their time for action. Associated with these were men of fiercer spirit, who thought the shortest way out of their troubles was to assassinate both the king and his brother. Amongst this number was one Rumbold, an old officer of Cromwell's army, who lived at a place called the Rye House, in Herts. He suggested that it would be very easy to shoot Charles from this house as he was passing on his way to Newmarket, and the project was warmly received by the few desperate men who were privy to it. Thus there were two plots—one within the other; but they were known under one name—**The Rye House Plot.** **1683 A.D.**

The conspiracy having been discovered, some of the vilest of those who had taken part in it hastened to save their lives by betraying others. Russell and Sidney died on the scaffold, though they knew nothing of the plot of assassination; Essex perished by his own hand; Monmouth, throwing himself upon his father's mercy, was pardoned, and retired to the Continent; and Howard saved his life by turning approver. The Rye House Plot ruined for a time the influence of the Whigs, and Charles was left at liberty to wreak his vengeance on all who had caused him so much humiliation in past years. The Duke of York resumed his public offices, in spite of the Test Act, and exerted all his influence in favour of severe measures. His zeal for the Roman Catholic religion caused the king to say to him one day: 'Brother, I am too old to go again on my travels; you may, if you choose;' meaning that the measures he advised would provoke an open rebellion.

Charles one Sunday felt rather unwell, and the next day he was seized with an apoplectic fit, and died within a week. Bishop Ken attended him during his illness; but the day before his death, the Duke of York privately introduced into the bedchamber a Roman Catholic priest, who administered to the dying king the last rites of his Church. Charles breathed his last February 6, 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and was buried at Westminster.

By his wife, Catherine of Portugal, he had no issue; but he had several illegitimate sons, who became the ancestors of some existing noble houses. In morals he was almost the worst king that ever sat on the English throne. He had no faith in virtue and goodness, and believed that every man and woman had their price. His court was seldom free from scenes of debauchery and disorder. With the dissolute, his gay disposition made him popular, and acquired for him the name of the 'Merry Monarch.' Though very fond of outdoor exercise, he was too indolent to attend to public business, and cared for nothing—neither public opinion nor national honour—so long as money was

forthcoming to support his vicious indulgences. One of the wits of his court wrote the following epigram upon him :—

Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one.

Miscellaneous Facts.

Catherine on her marriage brought to her husband a dowry of 500,000*l.* and the settlements of Tangier and

Charles II. and his Queen.

Bombay; the latter was granted to the East India Company in 1668. The formation of some regiments, called

Gentlemen of the Guard, now the Life Guards, was the first nucleus of a standing army, which at the close of the reign amounted to 7,000 foot and about 1,700 horse. The Royal Society, established in 1660, has done much for the advancement of science. Guineas were first coined in England in 1663, and were so named from being made of gold brought from Guinea by the African Trading Company. A penny post was set up in London in 1681. Newspapers began to acquire importance in consequence of the rivalry of political parties.

In 1682 Chelsea Hospital was founded for old soldiers. The State of Pennsylvania founded by William Penn.

The **Fifth-Monarchy Men** caused some trouble at the beginning of the reign. They were fanatics who declared that Christ was on the eve of commencing His reign on earth; hence their name. Their excesses furnished one reason for passing the Conventicle Act.

JAMES II.

Born 1633 A.D. Began to Reign 1685 A.D. Dethroned 1688 A.D. Died 1701 A.D.

Accession of James.
Insurrections of Argyle and Monmouth.
The Bloody Assize.
Attempts to Restore Romanism.
Trial of the Seven Bishops.
The Revolution.
The Interregnum.

Accession of James.

THE members of the Privy Council were present in the palace when Charles II. died, and within a quarter of an hour of his brother's death the Duke of York took his place at the board, with the title of James II. He promised, on the word of a king, to maintain the established government both in Church and State, and especially to defend and support the Church of England. These promises were repeated on the opening of Parliament. The clergy loyally supported their new sovereign, and made known from their pulpits his speech to the Privy Council. The Tory party greeted his accession with enthusiasm, while the Whigs looked on in silence. The new king soon put his Protestant friends to the test. Mass was at once celebrated in the queen's private chapel with open doors, that all might see; and on Easter Sunday he went in great pomp to the royal chapel, attended by all the chief officers of State and the knights of the Garter.

His coronation took place, according to the rites of the Church of England, on April 23; but by his orders the communion service and the ceremony of presenting the sovereign with a copy of the English Bible were omitted. Addresses of loyalty poured in from all parts of the kingdom, and the new Parliament which assembled consisted

chiefly of enthusiastic Tories. The House of Commons voted him a revenue of 1,900,000*l.* Secure of parliamentary support, his first thoughts were directed to revenge. The men who by their lies had sent innocent Roman Catholics to the scaffold in the previous reign were marked out for punishment. Bedloe was already dead; but Oates and Dangerfield survived to pay the penalty of their crimes. Oates, convicted of perjury, was sentenced to be pilloried and whipped at the cart's-tail from Aldgate to Newgate, and after an interval of two days, from Newgate to Aldgate. If he survived this punishment, he was to be imprisoned for life and pilloried five times a year. The miserable wretch outlived all these severities till after the revolution, when he was pardoned and pensioned. Dangerfield was also publicly whipped, but on his return to Newgate, a man named Francis struck him in the eye with a cane, which, in addition to the flogging, caused his death. Francis was executed for this act.

Insurrections of Argyle and Monmouth.

Many persons implicated in the Rye House Plot had sought refuge in Holland. Thither also came many fugitives from Scotland, of whom the chief was the Duke of Argyle. These refugees thought that the accession of a Roman Catholic to the throne was a favourable opportunity for returning home and upsetting the government. Monmouth, Argyle, and their respective followers, met at Amsterdam and there arranged plans of action. It was determined that Argyle should forthwith make a descent upon the western coast of Scotland, and that Monmouth should make an attempt upon England.

Early in May, Argyle landed in Cantyre, and sent forth a cross of yew, first set on fire and then quenched in the blood of a goat, to summon his clansmen to arms. Only 1,800 answered to his call, and with these he marched towards Glasgow, saying he had come to suppress not only popery, but prelacy. His plans were marred by disunion amongst his confederates; and after achieving a few

successes, his army was scattered in Dumbartonshire by the militia. In the disguise of a peasant, and with one companion, he was seized at the ford of Inchinnan, in Renfrewshire, while attempting to escape. He was taken to Edinburgh and beheaded on the sentence passed upon him in the previous reign, and his head was left to rot on the top of the Tolbooth. (June 30, 1685.) Argyleshire was devastated by the conquerors; many of the Campbell clan were executed; and hundreds were transported to the colonies.

In the meantime, Monmouth appeared off Lyme, in Dorsetshire, with three ships, containing about eighty exiles, well-armed and equipped. Landing at Lyme, he immediately issued a proclamation, charging James with many crimes, and stating that he had come 'for the defence and vindication of the Protestant religion, and the laws, rights, and privileges of England.' (June 11.) The little town went wild with excitement; men ran to and fro, shouting, 'A Monmouth! A Monmouth! The Protestant Religion!' and within twenty-four hours, fifteen hundred men had rallied round the duke's blue flag. Miners, ploughmen, and yeomen, came trooping in from all parts of Devonshire, and on the fourth day he marched to Taunton at the head of more than 3,000 men. There he was received with the greatest enthusiasm. Stands of colours were woven for his troops by the best families in the town, and a standard, richly embroidered, was presented to him by a train of twenty young ladies. At the same time a pocket-bible was put into his hands by the leader of the procession, and on receiving it, he said, 'I come to defend the truths contained in this book, and to seal them, if it must be so, with my blood.' The common people still continued to flock to his camp, but the nobility and gentry held themselves aloof. Assuming the title of king, Monmouth then marched to Bridgewater, where he was welcomed with royal honours by the mayor and aldermen. Advancing at the head of 6,000 men to Bristol, the second city in the kingdom, he had reached Keynsham, only five miles from the town, when the approach of the royal forces, under Lord Fever-

sham, compelled him to retire. Passing the walls of Bath, the insurgents hastened to Philip's Norton, and there exchanged shots with the vanguard of the royal army. Though successful in this skirmish, Monmouth fell back upon Bridgewater, closely followed by Feversham. The king's troops, to the number of 4,000, pitched their tents on the plain of Sedgemoor, about three miles from Bridgewater. Monmouth resolved to try the chance of a night attack. Advancing at the head of his men, he reached the moor a little after midnight, but his further progress was stopped by a deep drain, of which his scouts had not informed him. In the confusion that followed, a pistol went off. The report alarmed the sentinels, the royal drums beat to arms, and the men were soon drawn up ready for action. The rebel cavalry, under the command of Lord Grey, fled in confusion at the first fire, and the men who had charge of the ammunition, followed the example. Daylight came, when the duke, seeing his chance of success had gone with the darkness, mounted and rode from the field. His rustic army, though deserted and half-armed, stood their ground like veteran troops, till all their ammunition was expended. The royal horse then came thundering down on both flanks, but the rebels repulsed them with scythes and butt-ends of their muskets. The artillery soon began to play on the insurgent ranks, and in a few minutes the **Battle of Sedgemoor** was over. The rebels left more than a thousand dead on the field, and the victors had three hundred killed and wounded. Sedgemoor was the last battle fought on English ground.

July 6, **1685** A.D.

Two days later, the unfortunate Monmouth, in the disguise of a shepherd, was captured in a ditch in the New Forest, with some raw peas in his pocket. On the road to London, he sent an abject letter to the king, begging in piteous terms to be admitted into the royal presence. With his arms bound behind his back, he appeared before his uncle, and, falling on the ground, he sued for mercy in the most cowardly manner. But his appeals were useless, and two days afterwards, he was brought out on Tower Hill, to meet his doom. The executioner, unnerved by

the duke's request to do his work well, horrified the spectators by the failure of his blows. Five times the axe fell before the body ceased to move, and then a knife was requisite to sever the head from the shoulders.

The Bloody Assize.

The battle of Sedgemoor was followed by great brutality. Feversham immediately selected a number of insurgents for execution, and, on the following day, the road from Bridgewater to the moor was lined with gibbets, from which dangled an unfortunate prisoner. The duty of further butchery was left to Colonel Kirke, a man of the most brutal character. At Taunton he hanged the insurgent rustics by scores from the sign-post of the White Hart Inn. It is said that his officers caroused in sight of the work of death, and drank the king's health as each victim was turned off, while the drums beat and the trumpets sounded, in mockery of the dying agonies of the wretched sufferers.

But the cruelties of Kirke and his 'lambs,' as his soldiers were called, were nothing compared with the ferocious brutality of Judge Jeffreys, who was sent to try the captive rebels. His 'campaign,' as the king styled it, commenced at Winchester with the trial of an aged lady, named Alice Lisle, the widow of one of Cromwell's lords. She was accused of high treason for sheltering two fugitives from Sedgemoor. Though she stated that she was ignorant of their share in the rebellion, and there was little evidence against her, Jeffreys bullied the jury into a verdict of 'guilty,' and she was sentenced to be burnt alive. The clergy of the cathedral remonstrated with the brutal judge, and petitioned the king in favour of the poor lady. All that could be obtained was a change of sentence. She was beheaded in the market-place of Winchester, and underwent her fate with Christian fortitude. This was the only execution in Hampshire.

Dorchester was the next scene of the campaign. Here 292 received sentence of death, but only 74 suffered. From

Dorchester Jeffreys proceeded to Exeter, where only a few were to be tried. But in Somersetshire, the chief seat of the rebellion, 233 prisoners were in a few days hanged, drawn, and quartered. The judge seemed to gloat over his victims, and shouted and swore at them in the most brutal manner, like a wretch mad with hate and drink. The whole country presented a miserable prospect. Gibbets met the eye on every village-green and wherever two roads crossed, and dangling corpses, poisoning the air with their horrid stench, made the highways fearful to peasantry and travellers. While these atrocities were in course of perpetration, James was amusing himself with horse-races at Winchester. After the close of the 'Bloody Assize,' he raised his zealous servant to a peerage, and made him Lord Chancellor.

In addition to the judicial massacre, 841 prisoners were sentenced to transportation. These were bestowed upon the courtiers, who gained much money by traffic in pardons, and by the sale of prisoners as slaves for ten years in the West Indies. Even the queen herself took part in this horrid gain, and Jeffreys made quite a large fortune from the numerous bribes he received. The young ladies of Taunton who had presented Monmouth with an embroidered banner were given up to the tender mercies of the queen's maids of honour, and had to pay 2,000*l.* as the price of their liberty.

Attempts to Restore Romanism. Trial of the Seven Bishops.

The failure of Monmouth's rebellion encouraged James to carry out boldly the great wish of his heart—the restoration of the Roman Catholic religion. But he wanted a standing army composed of men ready and willing to support him in such an enterprise. The Test Act, however, prevented men of his own religion from taking service under the crown, and his first efforts were therefore directed to make this statute a dead letter. Parliament, though it voted him 700,000*l.* for military purposes, and was most devoted to the Stuart

family, refused to sanction the appointment of Roman Catholic officers in the army. For this opposition it was dismissed in anger. James, determined not to be thwarted in his purpose, claimed the right of dispensing with the Test Act and other penal laws; and the judges, after four of their number had been removed, decided in his favour. An army was then encamped on Hounslow Heath to overawe London, Roman Catholic officers were placed in command, and every encouragement given to convert the soldiers to Romanism. Thus the first difficulty was overcome.

The next step was the formation of a High Commission Court, similar to that which had been abolished by the Long Parliament. It consisted of seven members; its president was Lord Chancellor Jeffreys, and the affairs of the Church of England were placed under its control. (July 14, 1686.) The clergy were then ordered to refrain from preaching against popery, and those who became converts to Romanism were protected by the king's dispensing power. Compton, Bishop of London, was suspended from his office, for neglecting to silence one of his clergy who had disobeyed the decree forbidding preaching against popery. Monastic orders were encouraged to settle in London; Jesuits were permitted to open schools; and the rites of the Roman Catholic religion were publicly allowed. At the earnest solicitation of James, the Pope sent a papal legate to the English court, and for the first time since the reign of Mary a papal nuncio was entertained at Whitehall. Jesuit influence was now supreme at court; and the king proceeded to get rid of all those councillors who refused to become Romanists, and to fill their places with men of his own creed. Thus Rochester, the Lord Treasurer, and Clarendon, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, were dismissed from their office. Vacant bishoprics, too, were filled by men whose principles were supposed to be favourable to the king's design. It was now plain to the nation that James had no intention of keeping the solemn promises which he had made on his accession—of maintaining the Church of England—and the people's fears were excited.

Just about this time, unfortunately for the king's plan, Louis XIV. of France revoked the Edict of Nantes, which had given liberty of conscience to the French Protestants, and more than half a million of his subjects went into exile. Many thousands sought refuge in England, and their very presence and tales of suffering bore witness to the intolerant spirit of Romanism, and greatly alarmed the English people. In all the large towns the greatest excitement prevailed, and riots broke out in several parts of the country.

Indifferent to these warnings, the king next struck a blow at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Early in 1687, a royal letter was sent to the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University, directing him to admit a Benedictine monk, named Francis, to the degree of Master of Arts without the usual oaths. The demand being refused, the Vice-Chancellor, with eight others, amongst whom was the famous Sir Isaac Newton, was summoned before the High Commission Court, and lost his office.

Upon Oxford a more violent attack was made. University College and Christ Church were already under Roman Catholic influence, and Mass was daily said in both these places. In March 1687, the President of Magdalene College died. The king sent a letter to the Fellows commanding them to elect to the vacant post one Anthony Farmer, a young man of bad character who had recently turned papist. The Fellows refused, and elected Dr. Hough. The High Commission Court declared the election void, and James himself visited Oxford, and attempted to frighten the college authorities into compliance. He commanded them to appoint Parker, Bishop of Oxford, as President, and on their refusal, the bishop was installed in spite of them. For this resistance to the royal will, they were all ejected from the college and declared incapable of holding any clerical preferment. Magdalene then became a popish seminary. The excitement in Oxford was intense, and threatened to break out into open violence. The clergy throughout the kingdom were highly indignant at this outrage upon the rights of the university, and in less than

two years James was made to feel the folly of provoking such an influential body.

In April 1687, the king issued on his own authority a **Declaration of Indulgence**, granting to all his subjects liberty of conscience. A year later, a second *Declaration* appeared, and a few days after an order was issued, commanding the clergy to read it publicly during divine service on two successive Sundays. Such an order was not only illegal, but also a studied insult to the ministers of the Church of England. The London clergy decided to refuse compliance, and the primate and six other bishops presented a petition to the king upon the subject. James was furious on receiving the document, and stigmatised it as a standard of rebellion. When the day came for reading the Declaration, the order was obeyed only in four London churches, and as soon as the minister commenced to read the document the people walked out of the place. The country clergy followed the example of the capital, and only in a very few places was the illegal Declaration read. The Nonconformists encouraged the clergy with all their might, knowing full well that civil and religious liberty depended upon the issue of the struggle. James was astounded at the opposition which he had raised; but blinded by bigotry, he resolved to go on. He determined to bring the seven bishops to trial in the Court of King's Bench for publishing a seditious libel, as he was pleased to call their petition. The prelates were first summoned before the Privy Council, and then committed to the Tower to await their trial. The banks of the Thames were lined with thousands and thousands of spectators, as the barge conveying the seven to prison swept past, and the river was covered with wherries. At the sight of the bishops the people gave vent to their feelings in loud hurrahs, prayers, and tears, and many rushed into the water imploring a blessing from the venerable prisoners.

April 1688 A.D.

When the day of trial came, the prelates entered the court of King's Bench escorted by a crowd of nobility

and gentry, while the streets outside were crammed with multitudes of people. The seven, whose names will be ever memorable, were Archbishop Sancroft, Lloyd of St. Asaph, Turner of Ely, Lake of Chichester, Ken of Bath and Wells, White of Peterborough, and Trelawney of Bristol. Four judges sat on the bench, of whom one was a Romanist, and two others creatures of the court. The jury also was packed; and everything was done to ensure the king's success. But the event disappointed his expectations. The jury, through the obstinacy of the king's brewer, was shut up all night, and in the morning gave the verdict 'Not guilty!' In a moment the court rang again with shouts of joy, which were as quickly caught up by the anxious thousands outside. On went the loud hurrahs east and west, till the joy-sound reached the camp on Hounslow Heath, where James was dining with Lord Feversham. The foolish king, on learning the cause of the shouting, said, 'So much the worse for them.' London that night was one scene of wild excitement. Bonfires blazed in every open space, around which carousing crowds drank health to the bishops and confusion to their enemies. The windows were lighted up with seven candles in honour of the prelates—a tall one in the centre representing the primate.

June 29, **1688** A.D.

Just before the trial, the queen gave birth to a son. Previous to this, the heir-apparent to the throne was James's eldest daughter Mary, a Protestant and married to the Prince of Orange. The people looked forward with joy to her accession to undo her father's work. They were therefore bitterly disappointed at the birth of a prince. They refused to believe it. They said it was a plot of the Jesuits to prevent the accession of a Protestant; it was an imposture; a new-born child had been secretly introduced into the royal bedchamber, and handed round as the son of James. For years the majority of the nation thoroughly believed this story, and the unfortunate prince was never other to them than the **Pretender.**

The Revolution.

The trial of the bishops, the birth of a Prince of Wales and the evident design of James to destroy the Church of England, changed the feelings of the great Tory party, and brought into prominence the Whig faction, which had been kept in the background ever since the Rye House Plot. It was plain to all parties that England's liberty, civil and religious, depended upon the removal of James from the throne. The eyes of the nation had long been turned upon William Prince of Orange, the king's son-in-law and nephew, and many influential men had asked him to come to the rescue. The time had now come for interference. The Whig leaders—the earls of Shrewsbury, Devonshire, and Danby, Admiral Russell, and others—secretly sent a letter to Holland entreating the Prince of Orange to come to England with an armed force to save the country from popery and tyranny. Immediately preparations for the expedition were set on foot. James, though informed by the King of France, would not believe that an invasion was intended until it was too late to prevent it. At last aroused to a sense of his danger, he assembled a fleet, called out the militia, brought troops from Ireland and Scotland, until the army under Feversham amounted to 40,000 men. At the same time he tried to regain the goodwill of his subjects by showing favour to the bishops, by restoring the Fellows to Magdalene College, and by undoing all his other acts of violence; but all these concessions come too late; the people still looked wistfully for the first east wind to bring the deliverer to their shores.

On November 1, William left Holland with a fleet of more than 50 war-ships and nearly 700 transports, containing 15,000 soldiers. The east wind, which blew his fleet down the Channel, kept the royal ships in the Thames; and in a few days he landed without any molestation at Torbay, Devonshire. The people, remembering Jeffreys' campaign, received him at first shyly, and the gentry for the same

Nov. 5, **1688** A.D.

reason held back. The prince advanced to Exeter, and entered the city without opposition. On the ample folds of his banner were the words, 'The Protestant religion and the liberties of England!' Already his 'Declaration,' stating that he had come to protect the rights and liberties of the people, to procure a free Parliament, and to examine the suspicions current about the birth of the Prince of Wales, was in every man's hand. The coldness of his first reception soon wore off, and the people, high and low, joined his standard in thousands.

In the meantime James gathered a formidable army at Salisbury, and left London to place himself at its head. Feversham, however, advised him to withdraw beyond the Thames. But disunion and treachery were beginning to break up his forces. The very night James left the camp, Lord Churchill, the lieutenant-general, the Duke of Grafton, illegitimate son of Charles II., and several others, deserted to the Prince of Orange, and in the morning their example was followed by many officers. At Andover the king supped with his son-in-law, Prince George of Denmark, the husband of his daughter Anne; but the same night the prince, the Duke of Ormond, and others, joined the invader. When James reached London, one of the first things he heard was the desertion of his daughter Anne. 'God help me!' said he; 'my own children have forsaken me.' London was in a riotous state; in all parts of the country the people were rising for the Prince of Orange; the Irish soldiers alone made any show of resistance, and James saw that all was over. His first object was directed to get the queen and infant prince out of the country. On a dark and stormy night, in the month of December, the queen and babe, under the charge of two faithful friends, stole down the back stairs of the palace, and crossed the Thames in an open boat to Lambeth. The carriage, which was to take them to Gravesend, had not arrived, and the queen, fearing to enter any house, cowered in the wind and pelting rain, under the walls of Lambeth Church. The fugitives eventually reached Calais in safety.

Within twenty-four hours after his wife's flight, James slipped out of Whitehall, early in the morning of December 11, crossed the Thames to Vauxhall, and drove to Feversham, in Kent, where a hoy was waiting to take him to France. The vessel was just on the point of sailing when it was boarded by some fishermen, who, suspecting the passengers to be Jesuits, handled them rather roughly, and brought them ashore. The king, though disguised, was immediately recognised, and almost frightened out of his wits by the mob, who kept him for some days a close prisoner. Lord Feversham came down from London with two hundred guards to protect him, and under their escort he went back to the capital, where he was received with every demonstration of joy.

The Interregnum.

The Interregnum dates from the day on which James first quitted London (December 11, 1688) to the acceptance of the crown by William and Mary (February 13, 1689). As soon as the first flight of the king was known, London was all in commotion. William had not yet arrived, and no regency had been appointed. The worst characters of the capital, taking advantage of the general confusion, came out of their lurking places, and aided by thoughtless apprentices, committed gross acts of outrage and rapine. Under the cry of 'No Popery!' Roman Catholic chapels were sacked, and many private dwellings pillaged. The Jesuits who once haunted the palace, and others whose names had become notorious, sought refuge in flight or concealment. The detested Judge Jeffreys, disguised as a common sailor, and begrimed with coal-dust, was discovered in a low pot-house in Wapping, by a man whom he had once frightened in a law-suit. He was with great difficulty saved from being torn to pieces by the mob, and conveyed to the Tower.

The Lords who happened to be in London formed a kind of provisional government, and tried their utmost to preserve order. In the midst of their labours, the news of the king's arrest by the Kentish fishermen reached their ears, and they

despatched Lord Feversham with some troops to escort him to the capital. His return disconcerted the plans of William, who was then at Windsor. The prince had hoped to find a vacant throne and a people ready to bestow upon him the crown, but the king's presence was an obstacle to all his expectations. The difficulty, however, was overcome by a little tact. James was requested to retire from Whitehall to Ham, near Richmond; but as he was in doubt about his personal safety, he asked permission to withdraw to Rochester. Thither he went, attended by some of his best friends, who strongly advised him to stop in the kingdom, but, unwisely for his own interests, he turned a deaf ear to their counsels, and on the night of December 22, escaped in a vessel to France. He was hospitably received by Louis XIV., who placed at his disposal the palace of St. Germains.

The Prince of Orange entered London on the day James left it. He immediately called together about seventy peers, who were then in town, the leading citizens of the capital, and some prominent members of former Parliaments. This assembly recommended him to summon a 'Convention' to settle the affairs of the nation.

The Convention Parliament accordingly assembled and declared that James, having violated the constitution and withdrawn from the kingdom, had abdicated the throne. It further resolved that it was inconsistent with the safety and welfare of a Protestant kingdom to be governed by a popish prince. The throne being thus declared vacant, the important question remained, By whom should it be filled? This point was warmly debated by the two great political parties in the State. The Tories advocated a regency, but the Whigs, on the other hand, showed the necessity of filling up the vacant sovereignty. Others endeavoured to find a middle course, and proposed that the crown should be conferred upon Mary Princess of Orange, in her own right, thus passing over the claims of the infant Prince of Wales.

Jan. 22, **1689** A.D.

William then made known his own opinions. He declared that he would not accept the post of regent, or take the government of the kingdom under his wife if she were

chosen queen. If either of these plans were adopted, he would return to Holland. The only course left for the Convention was to offer the crown to William and Mary jointly. But before finally settling this question, the Commons drew up the celebrated **Declaration of Rights**, which set forth their late grievances, and asserted what were deemed the ancient rights of the people. Having thus vindicated the principles of the English constitution, the Convention drew up the **Act of Settlement**, which provided that William and Mary should be king and queen of England for their joint and separate lives; that the crown should be settled upon the children of Mary, then on the Princess Anne and her children, and then on the posterity of William. It further provided that any future sovereign becoming a Roman Catholic, or marrying a member of that Church, should forfeit his crown, and that the Government should descend to the next Protestant heir. On these conditions, the Prince and Princess of Orange ascended the throne of England; the Revolution was consummated, and the interregnum came to an end. Feb. 13, **1689** A.D.

James spent the remaining years of his life at St. Germains, near Paris, where he was munificently maintained by the King of France. He died of apoplexy, in 1701. He was a far better man than his brother Charles II., but much inferior in intellectual power. Their points of difference were well described by a court wit. 'Charles *could* see things if he *would*, James *would* see things if he *could*.' James was a bigoted zealot; thoroughly honest indeed in his own religious convictions, but stupidly blind to the convictions of others. His love for arbitrary power and his injudicious zeal for popery cost him his throne.

He was twice married: first to Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, by whom he had issue Mary and Anne, who both ascended the throne. His second wife was Mary D'Este of Modena, who bore him a son, James Francis Edward, known as the Pretender, and a daughter, Mary Louisa, who died young.

Miscellaneous Facts.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) drove to England about 50,000 French refugees, who improved the silk manufacture and many useful arts in this country. The Revolution released Dissenters from persecution, and secured the independence of the judges by making their office life-long. Sir Isaac Newton published his theory of the universe. Several charity schools were established in London and its neighbourhood.

Costume: time of James II. and William III.

WILLIAM III. and MARY II.

William.—Born 1650 A.D. Elected King 1689 A.D.
Died 1702 A.D.

Mary.—Born 1662 A.D. Elected Queen 1689 A.D.
Died 1694 A.D.

Settlement of the Nation.
The Nonjurors.
Affairs of Scotland.
Massacre of Glencoe.
Affairs of Ireland.
Battle of the Boyne.
Treaty of Limerick.
War with France.
Jacobite Plots.
Partition Treaties with France.
Second Act of Settlement.
William's Death and Character.

Miscellaneous Facts.

Settlement of the Nation. The Nonjurors.

The Convention Assembly having been declared a proper Parliament, proceeded to settle the affairs of the nation. Its attention was first given to a settlement of the revenue. The House of Commons, taught by the experience of the last few years, was more niggard than in previous reigns, and only voted an annual revenue of 1,200,000*l.* For the first time in our history, it assumed the power of *appropriating* the supplies. It decided that half the revenue should be appropriated to the maintenance of the king's government and family, or what is now called the *Civil List*, and the other half to the public defence.

It was impossible to maintain the new government without a standing army, but the 'Declaration of Rights' had declared a standing army in times of peace to be illegal. The mutiny of a Scotch regiment forced the question upon the attention of Parliament. It was decided to pass a

Mutiny Act, to be renewed annually, which provided for the existence of a standing army, and subjected the troops to martial law. The military force of the kingdom was remodelled under the care of Lord Churchill, who was soon made Earl of Marlborough.

The Nonconformists were allowed religious liberty by the passing of a **Toleration Act.** Unitarians, however, were excluded from its benefits, and the penal laws against Romanists remained still in force.

Though the revolution had been completed without bloodshed, there was yet a strong minority of the nation opposed to these changes. The clergy of the Church of England had for years been preaching to their people the duty of passive obedience; and hostile as James had been to them, they were unwilling to break their oath of allegiance, and deny the principles which had hitherto guided their conduct. Many, too, were confirmed in these views by the favours shown to Nonconformists. Archbishop Sancroft, seven other bishops, and four hundred clergymen refused to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, and were consequently suspended. On this account they were called **Nonjurors,** and formed a party devoted to the exiled royal family. The supporters of James were generally called **Jacobites,** from *Jacobus*, the Latin name for *James.*

Affairs of Scotland. Massacre of Glencoe.

The Revolution was not so peacefully effected in the sister kingdoms of Scotland and Ireland. The Convention Parliament in Edinburgh, following the example of England, had declared that James had forfeited the crown, and invited William and Mary to ascend the vacant throne. But there was a strong party in Scotland, especially in the Highlands, opposed to these changes. Graham of Claverhouse, who had been most active in persecuting the Covenanters during the last two reigns, and had been made Viscount Dundee, determined to rally the adherents of James and maintain the Stuart cause by force of arms. The Duke of Gordon held the castle of Edinburgh for the

exiled house. Dundee mustered about 3,000 Highlanders, and attacked General Mackay at the pass of **Killicrankie,** in Perthshire. The Highlanders carried everything before them; Mackay escaped with difficulty at the head of a few horse, leaving 2,000 of his men killed or prisoners; but the victory cost the life of Dundee, who fell mortally wounded whilst heading the final charge. After the death of Dundee, the Highlanders dispersed to their mountain homes; Gordon surrendered the castle of Edinburgh, and by the end of the year the authority of the new sovereigns was generally acknowledged in Scotland.

July 13, **1689** A.D.

Among some of the Highland clans the spirit of rebellion smouldered for months. The government thought it advisable to spend some twelve or fifteen thousand pounds in quieting these troublesome mountaineers, and the Earl of Breadalbane was deputed to distribute this money. In addition to Breadalbane's mission, the authorities at Edinburgh issued a proclamation exhorting the clans to submit to King William and Queen Mary, and promising pardon to every rebel who, on or before December 31, 1691, should take the oath of allegiance to their majesties. Before the time fixed all the clans had taken the oaths except the Macdonalds of Glencoe. This tribe lived under their chief MacIan in a wild mountain glen on the western coast, between Argyleshire and Inverness-shire, and numbered in all about two hundred souls. Like the Highlanders in general, the Macdonalds lived as much by robbery as by honest labour. Not far from their rugged home lay the lands of the hostile tribe of Campbell, and many a time MacIan's men came down on plundering expeditions into the domains of their neighbours. Breadalbane, as a member of the Campbell clan, bore no goodwill to the Macdonalds. From him MacIan saw there was little chance of getting any of the English gold, and he determined to refuse the oath of allegiance. But on the last day of December, the old chief, thinking better of the matter, repaired to Fort William, accompanied by his chief vassals, and offered to take the oaths. To his dismay,

there was no one there competent to administer them. The nearest magistrate was at Inverary, and thither MacIan and his followers hurried. But the snow lay thick on the hills, and travelling was slow and difficult. A week nearly elapsed before the old chief reached Inverary, and after much persuasion he induced the sheriff to take his oath and give him a certificate. MacIan then returned home, thinking himself safe under the protection of the government to which he had sworn allegiance. But a cruel conspiracy was being formed against him and his people. The Master of Stair, who was at the head of the government of Scotland, bore a deadly hatred to the Macdonalds, and in concert with their enemies, Breadalbane and Argyle, he formed a plan for their destruction. The certificate of MacIan's submission was suppressed; he was reported to the king as the chief cause of all the turbulence of the Highlands; and thus a royal order was obtained to extirpate the clan as 'a set of thieves.'

On February 1, 1692, one hundred and twenty soldiers, most of whom were Campbells, marched to Glencoe. They were commanded by Captain Campbell, called in Scotland Glenlyon, whose niece had been married to one of MacIan's sons. Four hundred other troops were to follow in a few days to stop up all the passes of the glen; but Glenlyon's orders were to wait till the morning of February 13, and then strike down every Macdonald under seventy years of age. For twelve days the soldiers lived amongst their destined victims as the best of friends. The very night before the massacre Glenlyon supped and played cards with those whom he intended to butcher in the morning. Five o'clock was the hour fixed for the deed of blood. Long before daybreak thirty-eight of the clan, among whom was the old chief, lay dead on the dunghills before their doors. The rest fled half-naked to the hills at the sound of the first shots, where they suffered terribly from cold and hunger. When the survivors crept back to the glen, their homes lay a smouldering heap, their cattle had gone with the destroyer, and the ghastly corpses of their kinsmen struck terror into their souls.

The **Massacre of Glencoe** remained unknown in all its horrid details for more than a year, when the secret press of the Jacobites proclaimed it to the world. At first it was regarded as an invention of William's enemies, till a royal commission appointed three years afterwards, at the urgent wish of the Scottish nation, revealed the truth of the story. The outrage brought down upon William's government a burst of execration. The king tried to excuse himself by saying he was not aware of the full purport of the warrant, which he had signed in the press of business. The parties immediately concerned in the massacre escaped all punishment except the stings of conscience and the detestation of their fellow-men.

Affairs of Ireland. Battle of the Boyne. Treaty of Limerick.

Ireland, being chiefly Roman Catholic, warmly upheld the cause of James. The Lord-Lieutenant Tyrconnel had under his command an army of devoted Papists. James landed at Kinsale with money and supplies from the King of France, and advanced to Dublin. (March 12, 1689.) His authority was acknowledged everywhere except in the chief towns of Ulster, where alone the Protestants were in any force. After holding a Parliament in Dublin, which decided to suppress the Protestant religion and forfeit the goods of those opposed to popery, James marched his forces against Londonderry. The siege of this town will ever remain memorable for the valour and endurance of its inhabitants, who took for their motto the long-celebrated cry of 'No surrender!' Though their fortifications were weak, and the supply of cannon, powder, and provisions small, for four months they repelled every attack of the besiegers. Much of this credit is due to a clergyman named George Walker, who had raised a regiment in the Protestant cause. After the people had eaten all the horses, dogs, cats, rats, mice, tallow, starch, &c. in the town, and when famine was at its height, some English ships broke through the obstructions in the river, and saved the city.

The same night the enemy raised the siege, having lost before the heroic town more than 8,000 men.

On the same day the Protestants of Enniskillen defeated some Irish troops at Newton Butler.

In August, Marshal Schomberg landed in the north with 16,000 men, and took and sacked Carrickfergus. In the following spring he was joined by William, who, at the head of 36,000 men, marched south to Dublin. James, reinforced by 6,000 French, took up a position on the river Boyne, not far from Drogheda. The **Battle of the Boyne** brought defeat to his army, with a loss of 1,500 men. James himself hurried off to Waterford, and thence to France. The victors lost about 500 men, amongst whom were Schomberg, and Walker, the brave defender of Londonderry.

July 1, **1690** A.D.

After this victory William soon made himself master of the southern part of the island, but the west still held out. The completion of the war was left in the hands of the Dutch general Ginckle, who commenced the next campaign with the capture of Athlone, a strong town on the Shannon. This success was followed up by an obstinate battle with the Irish under the command of the French general St. Ruth, at **Aghrin**. St. Ruth was struck down by a cannon-ball, whilst gallantly heading a charge, and his army, on the death of its leader, broke and fled. At Limerick they made their last stand. Ginckle laid siege to the town, which, after six weeks, surrendered on favourable terms. The **Treaty of Limerick** brought the struggle to an end. By its provisions the Roman Catholics were allowed the same religious privileges as in the reign of Charles II.; their lands were guaranteed to all who would submit to William; and those who chose might leave the island. In accordance with the treaty, about 12,000 Irish troops embarked for France under their brave leader, Patrick Sarsfield. They were subsequently known as the 'Irish Brigade,' and played a most important part in the French wars.

July 12, **1691** A.D.

Oct. 3, **1691** A.D.

The Parliament which assembled in Dublin after these

events passed the severest measures against Romanists. More than a million acres of land were confiscated, in spite of the treaty of Limerick, and lavishly distributed amongst English grandees.

The victorious party saw no safety for its rule except in a system of oppression worthy of the most barbarous ages. Everything was done with a view to stamp out the Roman Catholic religion. No Papist could be a schoolmaster, a guardian of any child, or a solicitor; intermarriages with Protestants were forbidden; no Papist could possess land by descent or otherwise; and no arms could be retained. In addition to these, the most stringent measures were sanctioned in reference to the Roman Catholic clergy. A policy so harsh succeeded in crushing out the spirit of resistance, but it left a legacy of bitter hatred to English rule.

War with France.

Louis XIV., King of France, had long been considered the champion prince of the Roman Catholic religion. His great ambition, however, had caused several of the continental powers to form the League of Augsburg for mutual defence against the aggressions of France. William, when he became king, had little difficulty in persuading the English Parliament to join the confederacy against Louis. The support given to James in Ireland was sufficient pretext for a quarrel, and so war was declared May 7, 1689.

Home affairs prevented any active operations till the following year, when Marlborough was sent with some forces to join the Dutch. In the same year, the combined fleets of England and Holland, under Admiral Torrington, were defeated by the French off **Beachy Head.** (June 30, 1690.) The English retreated to the Thames, and left the victors masters of the Channel. In 1691, William went over to Holland with an English army, but the campaign was spent in marching and countermarching. During this time some of the leading men in William's government were corresponding with James. Even Marlborough, who held a high military command, and Russell, the Treasurer

of the Navy, who had been appointed admiral of the combined fleets of England and Holland, were in secret correspondence with the court of St. Germains. By such traitors the plans of William and his allies were made known to the French king. James, excited by the promises of his Jacobite friends in England, persuaded Louis to assist him in an invasion of the country. The 'Irish Brigade,' numbering 20,000 men, and 10,000 French troops, were drawn up at Cotentin, near La Hogue, ready to be convoyed across the Channel by the French fleet. In the meantime, Marlborough's treachery was disclosed, and disgrace immediately befell him and several others. Queen Mary, who had been left in charge of the government while her husband was on the Continent, was greatly alarmed by the rumours of Jacobite conspiracies. In the coffee-houses of London might be heard the voices of men denouncing admirals and captains as traitors, and distrust prevailed everywhere. The queen, not quite sure of Russell's fidelity, sent him a letter, which he was to read to the fleet, but by this time the admiral's feelings towards James had cooled. Passing from ship to ship, he exhorted the crews to do their duty. 'If your commanders play false,' said he, 'overboard with them, and with myself the first.'

The English and Dutch fleets, numbering in all 99 sail, bore down towards La Hogue to destroy the armament preparing for the intended invasion. The French admiral Tourville, ignorant of the union of the allied fleets, and trusting to treachery in the English ships, left Brest with 44 sail of the line. Off Barfleur the opposing squadrons came into sight, and Tourville soon found out his mistake. The battle which took place, known as **La Hogue**, ended in the complete defeat of the French. A kind of running fight continued for three days, during which Tourville lost 25 ships. Eighteen of these ran aground near James's camp, where they were followed by the English sailors in boats, and burnt under the very eyes of the exiled king. This victory dispelled all fears of invasion, and effaced the shame of the disgraceful defeat off Beachy Head.

May 19, **1692** A.D.

On land, William and his allies attacked the French at **Steinkirk**, but were beaten back with great loss. (Aug. 3.)

Louis obtained further revenge in the following year by the defeat of William at **Landen** (July 19, 1694), and by the dispersion with great loss of the rich Smyrna fleet off St. Vincent. As a set-off, the English bombarded the coast towns of France, and nearly destroyed Dieppe and Havre. But an attempt to capture Brest failed, with great loss to the English, entirely through the treachery of Marlborough.

In the year 1695, St. Malo, Dunkirk, and Calais were bombarded. Louis, in retaliation, sent some troops against Brussels, who laid the greater part of the town in ruins. In the autumn, William obtained a great success in the capture of **Namur**, but the allies suffered great loss.

The next year found the belligerents almost exhausted. With the exception of the bombardment of a few coast towns by the allied fleets, and indecisive skirmishes on land, nothing of importance was done. Both sides, heartily tired of the war, brought it to an end by the **Treaty of Ryswick**. Louis consented to acknowledge William as King of Great Britain and Ireland, and to cease countenancing any conspiracy against him. The peace caused the greatest dismay amongst the Jacobites, but the great majority of the people hailed it with acclamations of delight.

Sept. 10, **1697** A.D.

Jacobite Plots.

From the beginning of the Revolution, there was an influential body in the nation, like the Non-jurors, who regarded William's accession as an usurpation. Many Tories and discontented Whigs swelled this faction, which continued to keep up an active correspondence with James. William was not a popular king. His manners were cold and reserved. Although he was the grandson of Charles I., he was considered a foreigner, and the favour he showed to his Dutch countrymen increased the unpopularity of his

foreign extraction. As the excitement of the Revolution cooled down, the bad conduct of James became less heinous to many who had gladly welcomed the Prince of Orange, and conspiracies were set afoot to bring him back to the throne. We have already mentioned the names of Marlborough and Admiral Russell, the latter a member of the Whig party. To these may be added the names of the Princess Anne, the Earl of Shrewsbury, Earl Clarendon, and Lord Godolphin, the Prime Minister; and they are but examples of a host of others. Fortunately for the peace of England, James's foolish and bigoted conduct, even in exile, undid the work of all his friends at home. The Protestant Jacobites who presented themselves at the Court of St. Germains were treated with every mark of disrespect. They had no chance, compared with a Papist, of obtaining James's favour. All who died in the Protestant faith were buried, like dogs, in a field in the dead of night. These insults damaged the Jacobite cause in England and Scotland, and even some of its most ardent supporters were disgusted and alarmed. Just before the battle of La Hogue, when James's hopes ran high, he issued a Declaration, which contained so little acknowledgment of error, so few promises of better government, that his friends were ashamed of it, and called it a forgery. By conduct so foolish James did as much harm to his cause as the defeat of La Hogue.

On December 28, 1694, Queen Mary died of the small-pox, greatly lamented by the majority of the nation. Her death was the signal for renewed Jacobite plots, and she was scarcely laid in her grave when a scheme was formed, with the approval of James, for the assassination of her husband. The design of murdering the king was confined to a few select traitors, but at the same time another plan was set on foot to raise an insurrection which was to be supported by a foreign army. Each of these plots was under the direction of a leader sent specially from St. Germains. The care of the insurrection was intrusted to the Duke of Berwick, an illegitimate son of Charles II., and the assassination to Sir George Barclay, who had fought under

Dundee in Scotland. Barclay got together a band of about forty cut-throats, half of whom had come from France on purpose; and it was resolved to attack the king on his return from hunting at Richmond, as was his custom every Saturday. (February 25, 1696.) At the same time troops and transports were being collected at Calais, ready for action as soon as William's death was known.

The plot was disclosed by some of the conspirators, and immediately the Parliament and nation were roused to the highest pitch of excitement. The words assassination and invasion acted like a spell, and the whole country was astir. The two Houses of Parliament formed a 'Loyal Association,' by which they pledged themselves to protect the king's life, and support the order of succession as settled by the Bill of Rights. The conspirators were hunted like wild beasts; the chief were soon captured, except Barclay, who escaped to France, and eight were executed. The search after Jacobite plotters became very active. Sir John Fenwick was arrested as a party to the assassination plot. When in prison he offered to give evidence against Marlborough, Godolphin, Russell, and others. But his hesitating and wavering conduct caused his statements to be treated as calumnies. He suffered death on Tower Hill, by Bill of Attainder, being the last in England who perished on the scaffold by that method of procedure. (January 28, 1697.)

These futile conspiracies and the peace of Ryswick had a very discouraging effect upon the Jacobites, and for the remainder of the reign they gave little trouble to the government.

Partition Treaties with France. Second Act of Settlement. William's Death and Character.

The war with France greatly impoverished the nation, and was the beginning of the **National Debt**, which then amounted to 17,000,000*l.* The House of Commons, in its anxiety to retrench expenses, and from its antipathy to a standing army, reduced the military force of the kingdom

to 10,000 men. This vote was very displeasing to the king, who knew that peace with France could not long continue. In 1698 a new Parliament assembled, which contained a great number of Tories, many of whom were hostile to William. This Assembly reduced the army to 7,000 men, and passed a vote that they should all be natives of the British dominions. This measure was particularly galling to the king, who was thus obliged to dismiss his faithful Dutch guards, and the French refugees in his service.

Parliament was thus disarming England just at a time when the government of France was planning a scheme to add Spain to its dominions. Charles II. of Spain had no issue, and his health was much enfeebled. There were three claimants for his possessions—the Dauphin of France, the Emperor Leopold, and the Electoral Prince of Bavaria. William, fearing the aggrandisement of France, secretly formed a treaty with the French king for the partition of the Spanish empire. The **First Partition Treaty** was signed October 11, 1698. According to its provisions, Spain, the Netherlands, and the Indies were to be given to the Electoral Prince; Naples and Sicily to the Dauphin; and Milan to the Archduke Charles, second son of the emperor. In the following year the Prince of Bavaria died, and consequently a **Second Partition Treaty** was made in the spring of 1700, giving to the Archduke Charles the portion assigned to the Electoral Prince, and Milan to the Dauphin, in addition to the possessions promised in the former treaty. Both these treaties were to be kept secret from the King of Spain, but Louis took good care to make them known. Within a month afterwards Charles II. died, leaving a will in favour of the Dauphin's second son, Philip of Anjou. Louis, in spite of the partition treaty, helped his grandson with all his power, and hence arose the great war of the Spanish succession. England could do nothing to check the aggrandisement of France. Her army was reduced to the lowest point, and the people were already burdened with the debt of the late war. William, however, succeeded in forming

the **Grand Alliance** of England, Holland, and the Empire, to prevent France from obtaining the Spanish Netherlands and Milan. (September 7, 1701.)

An event happened just then in France which caused the English people to unite heartily in the policy of their king. James was dying at St. Germains. Louis entered his bedchamber, and, in defiance of all his engagements, said to the dying exile, 'I come to tell your majesty that, whenever it shall please God to take you from us, I will be to your son what I have been to you; and I will acknowledge him as King of England, Scotland, and Ireland.' This declaration produced the greatest indignation in England, and the new Parliament, which met at the close of the year, voted large land and sea forces, and declared that no peace should be made till France had atoned for the insult.

In the summer previous to this, a **Second Act of Settlement** had been drawn up. William was childless; and Anne, the next heir to the throne, had lost all her children. A new settlement of the crown was therefore necessary. It provided that the succession to the throne should be in Sophia of Hanover, daughter of Frederick, Elector Palatine, and Elizabeth, sister of Charles I., and her heirs, being Protestants. There were, besides, many new securities for the liberties of the people incorporated in this Act.

1701 A.D.

William's health had for some time been in a declining state. His many cares and anxieties wore out his strength and made him prematurely old. When riding one day in Hampton Court park, his horse trod where a mole had been working, stumbled, and threw him. The king broke his collar-bone. The shock was too much for a system already enfeebled by disease, and about a fortnight afterwards, he died at Kensington, in the fifty-second year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign. (March 8, 1702.)

In appearance William was a man of middle height, and very thin; his nose was aquiline; his eyes bright and piercing; and forehead high. In manner he was cold and reserved; but on the field of battle he was full of animation.

As a general and a statesman he ranks high; and his moral character is marked by temperance, truthfulness, and honesty. His most intimate friend was a Dutch gentleman, named Bentinck, whom he created Earl of Portland.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In Scotland there was a great desire to form commercial relations with the East and West Indies. For this purpose the Scotch Parliament passed a bill to further the scheme of establishing two colonies on the isthmus of Darien. This undertaking was called the **Darien Scheme.** In 1698, after great preparations, 1,200 men, besides women and children, set out from Leith for the isthmus. Their leader misunderstood the geography of the district, and the East India Company and Dutch merchants opposed the plan with all their might. What with opposition in England, sickness, and attacks from the Spaniards, the undertaking became a ruinous failure, and caused a bitter feeling in Scotland against this country.

The Parliaments of this reign passed several important Acts. In 1694 a **Triennial Bill** provided for the election of a new Parliament every third year. This act continued in force till the reign of George I. In 1696 a **Treason Act** was passed for the better regulation of trials for treason.

The **Freedom of the Press** was established by the expiration of the Licensing Act, which forbade unlicensed printing. (1695.)

The **Bank of England** was founded by a Scotchman named Paterson, in 1695; in the following year an Englishman, named Holland, established the Bank of Scotland; and paper money then came into use. In this reign the first real **Ministry** or **Cabinet** was formed.

Bayonets, invented at Bayonne, came into use; the first Eddystone Lighthouse was begun; a steam-engine for raising water was invented by Savary; and Fort William, now Calcutta, was founded.

Greenwich Palace was converted into a hospital for seamen; the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was established in 1698; and three years later the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts was formed.

During this reign Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia, worked for three months as a ship-carpenter in the dock-yard of Deptford, under the name of Peter Michaelof.

ANNE.

Born 1665 A.D. Began to Reign 1702 A.D. Died 1714 A.D.

Accession of the Queen.
War of the Spanish Succession.
Treaty of Utrecht.
Union of England and Scotland.
The Strife of Political Parties.
Occasional Conformity Bill.
Dr. Sacheverell.
Death of the Queen.
Miscellaneous Facts.

The Queen's Accession. War of the Spanish Succession. Treaty of Utrecht.

ANNE, the second daughter of James II., was immediately proclaimed queen on the death of William. Her education had been intrusted to Compton, Bishop of London, who carefully brought her up in the principles of the Church of England. In 1683 she married Prince George of Denmark, and on her accession she made him generalissimo of the forces and lord high admiral; but on account of his weak, indolent character, his influence in England was very small. Anne had not lived on very good terms with the late king. She was entirely under the influence of the Countess of Marlborough, whose husband had been for some years in disgrace at court. Her feelings were in favour of the Tories, the opponents of William's government, but her advisers persuaded her to maintain the principles of the Grand Alliance, in continuation of the late king's policy. Lady Marlborough's influence was supreme at court. Between the queen and her favourite the royal dignity was laid aside. Anne took the name of **Mrs. Morley**, while her friend was called Mrs. Freeman.

The **War of the Spanish Succession** was caused, as we saw in the last reign, by the ambition of Louis XIV., who

successfully intrigued to get the throne of Spain for his grandson, Philip of Anjou. The **Grand Alliance**, consisting of England, Holland, the Empire, and afterwards of Portugal and Savoy, was formed to check the power of France. The war, which was declared in 1702, lasted eleven years. Its chief theatre was the Netherlands. The command of the English and Dutch armies was intrusted to Marlborough, who soon proved himself the first captain of the day.

The first two years of the war were spent on land in the capture of some important towns in the Netherlands, and on sea, Admiral Rooke did some execution upon French and Spanish ships in Vigo harbour. The third year is memorable for the great victory of **Blenheim.** Vienna being threatened by the French and their allies, Marlborough hastened to its relief. His forces, united to those under the imperial general, Prince Eugène of Savoy, amounted to about 52,000. The Bavarians and French, under Marshal Tallard, numbered 56,000. The battle began at mid-day, lasted till night, and ended in a famous victory for Marlborough. The slaughter was immense. The enemy lost about 40,000 men, and the victors 12,000. Tallard and his staff were captured, and the baggage and colours of his army, with most of the artillery, became the booty of the allies. This victory saved the emperor, and made him master of Bavaria. For this success, Marlborough received the thanks of Parliament, and the gift of the royal manor of Woodstock, which was further adorned by a splendid mansion, built at the public expense, and called Blenheim, after the famous battle.

Aug. 13, **1704** A.D.

In the same summer the English navy won laurels in the Mediterranean. Admiral Rooke, with some allied troops under the Prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, captured **Gibraltar.** (July 23, 1704.) Soon after, the French fleet was so severely handled off Malaga that for the rest of the war it dare not show itself.

In the following year, while Marlborough was reducing a few places in the Netherlands, the Earl of Peterborough

was shedding lustre on the English arms in Spain. With a small army, aided by the English navy, he captured Barcelona, and almost succeeded in driving Philip V. out of Spain. In the midst of his victorious career, he was recalled home, and the command given to the Earl of Galway, who, with some Portuguese forces, encountered Philip at **Almanza.** The Portuguese took to flight at the first shot, and the English were compelled to surrender.

In 1706, Marlborough defeated the French under Villeroy at **Ramilies,** and became master of Brabant. In the same year Eugène won a victory near Turin. Louis, thoroughly dispirited, sought peace, but his offers were rejected through English influence.

The next year passed without any great achievement, but in 1708, the great victory of **Oudenarde** gave Marlborough possession of Lille, and forced the French to abandon all their fortified places in Flanders. In the Mediterranean, Minorca fell into English hands. The King of France, in the hope of making a diversion, sent the Pretender with a small fleet to Scotland, but Admiral Byng arrived in the Forth in time to prevent a landing.

Marlborough's last victory was in 1709. As he and Eugène were preparing to besiege Mons, the French advanced in great force to save it, and at **Malplaquet** they fought one of the most obstinate battles of the war; but victory as usual fell to the allies. The capture of Mons terminated the campaign.[4] The remainder of the war was spent in sieges. The quarrels of political parties at home interfered with the successful prosecution of the struggle, and gave the French some slight advantages. The Tories wished to put an end to the war, and in 1711 they entered into negotiations with France for this purpose. Peace was eventually concluded by the **Treaty of Utrecht.** (1713.)

France agreed to acknowledge the succession of the House of Hanover; to promise that the crowns of France and Spain should not be united; to demolish the fortifications of Dunkirk; and to cede to England Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, and the islands of St. Christopher and Newfoundland. Spain agreed to cede to England Minorca and

Gibraltar, and the right of supplying Spanish America with negroes. Naples, Milan, Sardinia, and the Spanish Netherlands were to be ceded to the emperor, and Sicily to the Duke of Savoy.

This war added nearly 22,000,000*l.* to the national debt.

Union of England and Scotland.

At the time of Anne's succession, the relations between England and Scotland were in a most critical state. Ever since the union of the two crowns under James I., a feeling of jealousy and dissatisfaction had been growing up in the minds of the Scotch people with reference to England. The absence of the sovereign and his court gave to their country an appearance of inferiority which a high-spirited nation like the Scotch could ill brook. And the attempts of the Stuart kings to establish Episcopacy tended to increase the spirit of hostility to everything English. But the greatest bitterness was produced by the failure of the Darien scheme. The Scots had taken up this project of colonisation with as much enthusiasm as their fathers had signed the Covenant; and when it failed, bringing sorrow and ruin into many homes, fierce words were heard in every mouth against the influence of England. So revengeful was the language, and so bitter the feeling from one end of Scotland to the other, that it became plain that a separation of the two countries was nigh at hand, unless something was done to allay the discontent. The Scottish Parliament, in 1704, gave signs of the danger that threatened the two nations by passing an **Act of Security**, which decreed that the successor to the throne of Scotland on the death of Queen Anne should not be the person chosen by the English Parliament unless the Scottish people were admitted to share with the English the full benefits of trade and navigation. And to give effect to this Act, it was further resolved to drill all the men in Scotland capable of bearing arms. This threat aroused the indignation of the English Parliament, and the prospect of civil

war seemed inevitable. The wisest men in both countries saw that the only remedy lay in closer union, and their efforts were directed to bring about this desirable object.

1707 A.D. Commissioners were appointed on both sides to draw up a **Treaty of Union**, which, by promises and bribes, received the sanction of the Scottish Parliament. Its chief terms were :—

1. That the two kingdoms should form one, under the name of Great Britain.

2. That the succession to the crown of the United Kingdom should be in the Electress Sophia and her heirs, being Protestants.

3. That there should be equal rights and privileges of trade and navigation.

4. That Scotland should retain her own laws, customs, and Presbyterian form of religious worship.

5. That Scotland should be represented in the Parliament of Great Britain by sixteen elective peers and forty-five members of the Commons.

The 'Union Jack,' bearing the red cross of St. George and the diagonal white cross of St. Andrew, was appointed by proclamation to be the national flag. The Treaty of Union was most unpopular in Scotland among all classes of people. During its consideration, Edinburgh was in the state of the greatest excitement, and soldiers were necessary to protect the members of Parliament from violence. The unpopularity of this measure produced Jacobite rebellions in after years, and the favourite inscription on Scottish sword-blades for a long time was 'Prosperity to Scotland and no Union!' A half-century went by before Scotland began to reap the benefits of the Act of Union. With the decay of Jacobitism, there arose a spirit of industry and commerce which soon banished the discords of former years, and sowed the seeds of the closest friendship with their English neighbours. Then trade and manufactures made rapid progress amongst the Scots, and insignificant towns became opulent cities, and fishing villages thriving seaports.

The Strife of Political Parties. Occasional Conformity Bill. Dr. Sacheverell. Death of the Queen.

The strife between the two great political parties in the kingdom was most bitter throughout this reign. The queen's sympathies were with the Tories, and all her ministers were at first taken from that party. The Whigs had become very unpopular in the country by reason of the great increase of taxation, for which they were solely blamed. Anne's first Parliament, therefore, consisted chiefly of Tories, who, though willing to continue the foreign policy of the late king, treated his memory with marked disrespect. At first the strife of the two political factions related to Church questions. The Whigs were favourably inclined to religious toleration, and were called Low Churchmen, while their opponents, anxious to maintain the penal laws of Charles II., and distinguished by their attachment to old religious customs, were named High Churchmen. The Tories showed their power and spirit by passing in the House of Commons an **Occasional Conformity Bill**, which was levelled against Dissenters who swore to the Test Act in order to qualify themselves for public appointments. This Act declared that all persons holding government offices who should attend Dissenting places of worship, after taking the Sacrament and test imposed by law, should forfeit their posts, and be punished by fines, &c. It also proposed to apply the Test Act to freemen having a right to vote for members of Parliament, and to persons holding inferior offices under the crown. This violent and persecuting bill was happily thrown out by the Lords.

Just about this time the Duke of Marlborough was highly offended by the refusal of the Commons to grant him a pension of 5,000*l.*, which the queen wished to bestow upon him. His wife's influence at court was supreme, and for the remainder of the reign he did his utmost to favour the interest of the Whigs. Several of that party became members of the Cabinet, among whom was Robert Walpole,

afterwards so famous; and eventually a Whig was chosen Speaker of the House of Commons.

The queen was most averse to Whig ascendency, and only submitted to it in obedience to the will of the Duchess of Marlborough. But at last she began to tire of the yoke of this haughty and imperious lady, and longed for the opportunity of throwing it off. Their quarrels were fanned by one of the queen's attendants, named Abigail Hill, who had ingratiated herself into the royal favour. This young lady, afterwards known as Mrs. Masham, leaned to the Tory side and intrigued with Harley, the leader of that party, to overthrow the Whig influence at court. A false step on the part of the Ministry gave success to the intrigues of Miss Hill, and afforded the queen the opportunity of shaking off the yoke of the Duchess of Marlborough.

Dr. Sacheverell, Rector of St. Saviour's, Southwark, in a sermon preached at St. Paul's Cathedral before the Lord Mayor and aldermen of London, maintained the duty of passive obedience to the fullest extent, denounced the Revolution in no measured terms, opposed all toleration of Dissent, and railed at the Whig Ministry, especially at Godolphin, the Lord High Treasurer. With foaming lips and frantic gestures, he shouted that the Church of England was in danger, and called upon all true patriots to rally to its defence. (November 5, 1709.) The publication of the sermon so angered the Ministry that it was resolved to impeach the preacher before the House of Lords. The Tory party did its utmost to stir up the populace in Sacheverell's favour, and succeeded so well that during the three weeks of the trial multitudes daily escorted Sacheverell's coach to Westminster Hall. The queen herself attended almost every day, and her sedan-chair was surrounded by crowds, shouting, 'God bless the Queen and Dr. Sacheverell! we hope your Majesty is for High Church and Sacheverell.' The mob showed its zeal for the Church by destroying many Dissenting chapels, and by numerous acts of violence.

Feb. 27, **1710** A.D.

Sacheverell was found guilty, but by a very small majority. He was forbidden to preach for three years, and

his sermons were burnt in front of the Royal Exchange. But the punishment was so slight that it was considered a triumph by his friends, who testified their joy by bonfires and illuminations.

The result of this trial was the downfall of the Whig government. Anne, encouraged by the popular feeling, dismissed her ministers, and formed a Tory Administration, of which Harley (afterwards Earl of Oxford) and Mr. St. John (Lord Bolingbroke) were leading members. Marlborough, on account of the war still raging, was allowed to keep his post. A new Tory Parliament supported these changes, and passed an Occasional Conformity Bill, and a **Schism Act** requiring all schoolmasters to conform to the Established Church. Both were repealed in the following reign.

The new ministry sought to bring the war with France to an end, and entered into secret negotiations for this purpose, which, after two years, terminated in the treaty of Utrecht. Meanwhile, Marlborough, having returned to England, was accused of receiving bribes from a Jew who supplied the army with bread, and was dismissed from his office.

The remainder of the reign was occupied with Jacobite intrigues to bring in the Pretender. Harley and Bolingbroke were both in correspondence with the exiled Stuarts, but the Whigs and other supporters of the Act of Settlement were alive to the dangers that threatened the succession, and took prompt measures to defeat the schemes of those ministers. Bolingbroke quarrelled with his colleague Harley, and succeeded in obtaining his dismissal from office; but three days afterwards the queen was struck with a mortal illness, and the Whigs were restored to power before Bolingbroke's plan of recalling the Pretender was ripe for execution. Effective measures were at once taken to ensure the succession of the House of Hanover and to preserve the nation from civil war.

On August 1, 1714, Queen Anne died, the last lineal descendant of the Stuart race who sat on the throne of England. She was a woman of an amiable character, but weak, and somewhat indolent. Her disposition was affec-

tionate, and her virtues obtained for her the title of 'Good Queen Anne.' Her appearance, though engaging, lacked dignity. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, had died six years previously, and of her nineteen children, all died in infancy, except one boy George, who reached the age of eleven years.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1703, a great storm swept away Eddystone Lighthouse, and destroyed 12 ships of war and a great number of merchantmen. In London much valuable property was damaged, and 1,500 persons are said to have perished. The queen, in 1704, caused a bill to be passed to enable her to set apart *first-fruits* and *tenths* for the benefit of poor Church livings; this fund is known as **Queen Anne's Bounty**. St. Paul's Cathedral, after 37 years' labour, at a cost of about 1,000,000*l.*, was completed by Wren in 1708. More than fifty churches in London were built by this great architect. The first daily newspaper—'The Daily Courant'—was published. A General Post Office for all the British dominions was established. Newcomen, a locksmith of Devonshire, invented his steam-engine. This reign was the first for centuries which was undisturbed by rebellion.

SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE STUART PERIOD.

Population. Food. Dress. Dwellings. Amusements. National Industry. Condition of the Country. Learning and Literature.

The Stuart period of English history is distinguished for the conflict of the principles of liberty and despotism. The spirit of activity, enterprise, and independence, which had given new life to the nation under the Tudors, became too vigorous to be controlled by their successors. The former princes, though strong enough to make the power of the crown almost supreme, were yet sufficiently discreet to avoid provoking needless opposition; but the Stuarts, misunderstanding the temper of the people, aimed at arbitrary rule. They, however, lacked the power of enforcing their principles, and were so indiscreet as to put their weakness to the test. The struggle ended in the triumph of the popular cause, and the destruction of the Stuart dynasty. To this period, so fraught with many vicissitudes, we owe some of our most beneficial laws. It has been characterised as the age of bad government and good laws; and when we call to mind the *Petition of Right*, the *Habeas Corpus Act*, the *Bill of Rights*, and the *Act of Settlement*, we cannot but acknowledge the truth of the description.

And to this same era we owe the perfection of parliamentary government in the formation of a 'Ministry.' Before the Revolution, the sovereign usually conducted the government through the Privy Council, which was composed of the chief officers of State and others whom the king thought fit to summon to it. The members of this council were entirely independent of each other; there was no united action between them; and their official connection with the sovereign did not depend on the will

of the Parliament. Under William III. this system underwent a change. A body of advisers was chosen by the sovereign from the leading members of both Houses of Parliament, who were thought to represent the opinions of the Commons. This select body is known as the 'Ministry,' or the 'Cabinet.' The ministry, therefore, is, in fact, a committee of the leading members of the two Houses of Parliament, and thus the government of the nation really rests in the hands of the people.

Population.—The population of England at the close of the seventeenth century was about five millions and a half. The country gentleman formed a most important class, but they were very different in all respects from their descendants of the present day. In education and manners they were no better than small farmers of our own time. They lived on their estates, and seldom left their native county. On market days they might be seen in the neighbouring town busy selling the produce of their lands. They 'examined samples of grain, handled pigs, and made bargains over a tankard with drovers and hop-merchants.' Their language differed very little from that of a farm-labourer, and one could easily tell by their accent from what part of the country they came. But underneath all this simplicity and roughness, there lay the qualities of an English gentleman. Though uncouth in speech and manners, the country squire was proud of his descent and jealous of the honour of his house. His principles were marked by respect for hereditary monarchy, and love for the Church as established by law. The opponents of either of these received little consideration at his hands. His wife and daughters were as simple in their tastes as himself. They were not above the duties of household management. They could spin and sew, cook and brew, make wine and pastry, and still be to the villagers the ladies of the hall.

The clergy formed another important class of society. At this period the rural clergyman held a low place in the social scale. The Reformation had deprived the Church of many of her worldly honours and much of her

wealth, and consequently there were fewer inducements for men of good birth to take holy orders. The progress of education, too, enabled laymen to fill those high offices of State which in previous times had been held by clergymen. The sacred profession, therefore, offered few prizes to the upper classes, and gradually deteriorated in their estimation. The custom of retaining the services of a chaplain, or Levite, as he was called, in the houses of the rich, further depreciated the sacred calling. A chaplain was sometimes considered no better than an upper servant, and oftentimes was expected to fill up his spare time in the garden or on the farm. When he married, his wife was usually selected from the kitchen of his patron, and he was considered to have done well if a waiting-woman accepted him for a husband. Church livings were generally so small in value that a clergyman's sons were brought up to the plough, and his daughters trained up for domestic service. But the city clergy were men of a different stamp. The town parson upheld the honour of his calling, by his learning, eloquence, and independence. In the metropolitan pulpits especially were found men of the greatest refinement, skilled in all the learning of the day, and able to maintain a foremost place in the best society. The country clergy, humble as they were, possessed an influence quite as great in its way as their more favoured brethren of the capital. They were the oracles of the parish; and when books were scarce, and newspapers almost unknown, the opinions of the parson had great weight in all the country round.

The yeomanry of the time formed a most important part of the nation. The number of small proprietors of freehold estates was much greater under the Stuarts than at present. It is estimated that one-seventh of the whole population cultivated lands of their own, of which the average yearly value was between sixty and seventy pounds. Men of this class were characterised by a spirit of independence and a leaning towards Puritanism. The strength of the Roundhead armies in the great rebellion consisted in its sturdy, independent yeomen. Since then very many

of the small freeholds have been bought up by large landed proprietors, and the number of men who now farm the lands of others is much more numerous than formerly. The yeomanry of the present day are, in consequence, much less independent in political matters than the same class of men in the seventeenth century.

Of the common people, four-fifths were employed in agriculture, at wages averaging from four to six shillings per week. A mechanic, as late as the reign of Charles II., worked for a shilling a day, but oftentimes he was compelled to take less. Though wages were much lower than in our day, there were many privileges which labourers possessed in those times. Thousands of acres now enclosed and cultivated were common lands, which the peasant might use in many ways to add to his physical comfort.

Food.—The great majority of the nation lived chiefly on bread made of rye, barley, or oats. Wheaten bread such as is now supplied to the inmates of our workhouses was seldom seen on the tables even of the yeoman and shopkeeper. Fresh meat, then as now, was sold at prices above the pockets of the common people. The ordinary drink was beer; but in the latter half of the seventeenth century, tea, coffee, and chocolate came into use. The price of these beverages, however, was so high that the wealthy only could indulge in them. As late as 1710, bohea cost from twelve to twenty-four shillings per pound. Tea and coffee were at first sold in the liquid state, and an excise duty of eightpence and fourpence per gallon respectively was paid upon them.

The country gentleman kept to his beer, and rarely indulged in foreign wine. It was only in the houses of the nobility and on great occasions that foreign drinks were placed on the board. The time of taking meals had undergone little change. The tables of the wealthier classes were plentifully provided, but the vices of intemperance and gluttony were very common. Fresh meat was only eaten in the summer months. On the approach of cold weather, when grass became scanty, cattle were killed and salted in great numbers, and game and river

fish furnished the chief supply of fresh animal food till summer came round again. Under James I. a law was passed inflicting a fine of five shillings upon a drunkard, who, if unable to pay, was put in the stocks. In the same reign potatoes sold for two shillings the pound, and cauliflowers for eighteen-pence each.

The table-service was of the simplest kind. The upper classes used plate; the middle, pewter; and the lower, wooden trenchers. The highly-finished ware now in general use was then unknown. Forks were an important addition to the table furniture of this period.

The habit of smoking was extensively indulged in by all classes, and the use of highly-perfumed snuff was a great fashion after the Restoration, especially amongst the fops of the time.

Dress.—Under James I. the previous style of dress underwent little change, but in the time of Charles I. a most costly and picturesque costume came into use, which is known as the Vandyke dress, called after the famous portrait-painter of the time. It consisted of a tunic of silk or satin, with slashed sleeves; a rich lace collar adorned the neck; and a short cloak hung gracefully over one shoulder. Short full drawers or trousers, fringed with lace, almost reached the top of the wide boots, which came half-way up the calf of the leg. A broad-brimmed beaver, adorned with a rich band and a plume of feathers, covered the head. The hair hung in curls over the shoulders, and the beard was trimmed to a point. The gay Cavalier wore love-locks tied up with pretty coloured ribbon.

The Puritans affected simplicity of dress, though there were many who could vie with the Cavalier in richness of costume and ornament. As a body, they were distinguished by short hair, high-crowned hat, plain collar, and sober-coloured clothes.

Under Charles II. the Vandyke dress underwent many changes, and French fashions came into use. One of the most remarkable of these was the peruke or wig. Louis XIV., when young, had beautiful hair, which he usually wore in flowing curls. His courtiers tried, out of

compliment, to wear their hair in the same style, and those who were short of the article bought wigs. The use of the peruke soon became common amongst the gentlemen of France and England. Fringed gloves; embroidered coats, longer and looser than before; breeches, ornamented with ribbons, and allowing the shirt to fall over the waistband; and a cravat, instead of a collar, distinguished the courtiers of Charles II. Towards the close of the period, the breeches became tighter, wigs and waistcoats longer, and buckles, instead of rosettes, on the shoes came into use.

With regard to the dress of ladies, the fardingale and stiff ruffs of the previous period gave way, under Charles I., to flowing skirts and falling collars, edged with lace. The costumes of the court of Charles II. was something of the same style, but the dress was worn indecently low. An improvement in the latter respect was made after the Revolution. Then, too, began the fashion of looping up the skirts to show the rich under-clothing, and the custom of wearing the hair combed up like a tower. Both these fashions disappeared at the close of the period, when curls and the old fardingale, under the name of a hoop-petticoat, came again into use.

The dress of the working classes underwent little change, as the style and material of the clothing of their betters were too costly for imitation. The smock-frock was the countryman's usual outer garment.

Dwellings.—In the reign of James I., the ancient style of domestic architecture entirely disappeared. The country houses of the rich underwent a general improvement, but, on the whole, there was little attempt at display. In towns there was a change for the better in the style of building. James I. forbade by proclamation the erection of mud-plastered and wooden cottages within the walls of London, but the royal order was only partially observed. The fire of London was more effectual than proclamations, and after that event, houses of brick and stone took the place of the old-fashioned timber dwellings. The improvement thus made in the buildings of the capital soon spread to the provincial towns.

The furniture of the dwellings of the upper classes acquired great splendour in this period. It was richly carved and ornamented, with a taste equal to that of the present day. Paper and leather hangings were invented in the early part of the seventeenth century, and the walls of the houses of the nobility were adorned with the paintings of Rubens, Vandyke, Tenier, and Rembrandt. After the Restoration, the interior decorations and furniture of houses increased in costliness. French fashions furnished models for the wealthier classes of England, and the beautifully carved and gilded furniture of France, and the famous Gobelin tapestry of that country, soon found their way into the houses of the English nobility. Mahogany became the favourite material for articles of furniture. Floors were still covered with rushes, or matting of various colours. Turkey carpets were advertised for sale as early as 1660, but they were chiefly used as table-cloths. Oilcloth began to be used about the same time.

The homes of the working classes were still scantily supplied with articles. A rough table, a bench, a few stools, a straw bed, and some rude cooking utensils, constituted the furniture of a labouring man.

Amusements.—Side by side with the general improvements of the country in arts, commerce, and manufactures, healthy out-door sports began to decline. James I. endeavoured to keep alive the old English games by publishing the 'Book of Sports.' From this work we learn that the common amusements of the peasantry were dancing, leaping, vaulting, archery, May games, Whitsun ales, and morris dances. These pastimes were strongly recommended to all persons on Sundays after divine service. The games forbidden on that day were bear and bull-baiting, interludes, and bowling. The amusements of townspeople were more confined. They were cock-fighting, bowling, cards, dice, billiards, musical entertainments, dancing, masques, balls, and plays. The lower orders of citizens delighted themselves in foot-ball, wrestling, cudgel-playing, ninepins, cricket, quoits, bear-baiting, and lying at alehouses.

James I. was very fond of hawking, and during his reign that old sport maintained its ground. Billiards began to take the place of some of the former boisterous games, and tennis especially was a favourite pastime amongst courtiers. Horse-racing, too, increased in splendour and importance. Gaming-houses were licensed in London, and gambling was encouraged at the court of James.

When the Puritans obtained the supremacy, all sports were put down with a strong hand. The pastimes of the village-green were suppressed, and the May-poles were ordered to be cut down. Theatrical amusements, horse-racing, rope-dancing, bowls, bull-baiting, were considered abominations no longer to be tolerated. On the fall of the Commonwealth, the rigour and austerity of the Puritan rule caused a reaction which not only revived many of the old games, but also produced a spirit of frivolity and licentiousness.

After the Restoration, the theatres were crowded more than ever, and women appeared on the stage in characters formerly taken by boys. The vice of gambling prevailed to a ruinous extent. Boat-racing, yacht-racing, and horse-racing at Newmarket, were much practised.

National Industry.—The woollen manufacture continued to be the chief branch of home industry. It was usual to send cloth to be dyed in Holland, but James I., with the intention of favouring English interests, prohibited the exportation of undyed cloth, and encouraged that branch of the trade in England. The Dutch, in revenge, shut their ports against English-dyed cloths, and the woollen trade for a time suffered much from the dispute.

In the reign of Charles II., a law was passed for the encouragement of the great staple of the country, by which it was ordered that every dead person should be buried in a grave-dress made entirely of woollen material. By the settlement of some Dutchmen in England, a great improvement took place in the dyeing of English cloths.

The **silk** manufacture attracted great attention during this period. London was the centre of the trade. A company of silk-throwsters was incorporated in 1629, and in 1661 it employed forty thousand men, women, and

children. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes drove to England many refugees, who greatly improved this branch of industry. A numerous body of these emigrants settled in Spitalfields, now a part of London, where their descendants are still to be found.

The **linen** manufacture was chiefly a domestic employment. In the latter half of the seventeenth century, every encouragement was offered for the improvement of this industry. During the same period, the manufacture of linens, introduced by the Scotch into the north of Ireland, was gradually rising into importance.

The **cotton** trade was then in its infancy. In 1638, the people of Manchester are mentioned as buying cotton wool imported from Cyprus and Smyrna. Calico printing first commenced in London in 1676.

The mineral wealth of the country was almost neglected, but towards the close of the period it received greater attention. The tin-mines of Cornwall continued to be worked as they had been for centuries, but the rich veins of copper in the same locality remained untouched. The salt-beds of Cheshire were discovered soon after the Restoration, yet they were not worked in that age. The salt obtained from brine pits was so impure that physicians attributed many diseases to its use. The iron manufacture was in a languishing state, in consequence of the use of wood in smelting the ore. The consumption of so much wood caused Parliament to prohibit the employment of timber for smelting purposes. In the time of Charles II., most of the iron was imported, but the use of coal for smelting had already begun. In the same reign, the prejudice against the consumption of coal for domestic purposes had so far been overcome that more than 200 vessels were continually employed in carrying the mineral from Newcastle to London.

The commercial spirit excited in the previous period gathered strength under the Stuarts, in spite of the troubles of the State. The several trading companies of the time made favourable progress. The East India Company, though hampered by the rivalries of the Portuguese and Dutch, secured a firm footing in Surat and Madras before

the first half of the century had passed away. The Levant or Turkey Company, established in 1605, opened up the Mediterranean trade. The Merchant Adventurers obtained new charters from James I., and carried on a most lucrative business in woollen goods with the Netherlands and Germany. The north of Europe, too, was brought into commercial relations with England by the establishment of the Russian Company, which monopolised the fisheries of the northern seas. Later in the period, a lucrative trade began with the colonies of North America, or Plantations, as they were called; and the Hudson's Bay Company commenced its operations in furs, &c. The establishment of colonies is an evidence of the enterprising spirit of the age, and under the Stuarts colonisation made good progress. Two companies for this purpose were chartered by James I., and one of these built James Town, in Virginia. In the same reign, the Pilgrim Fathers founded the New England States. The colonising movement made steady progress in the following years, and in the time of Charles II. a distinguished quaker, named William Penn, founded the State of Pennsylvania.

Condition of the Country.—Agriculture employed the great majority of the population, and the produce of the soil far exceeded in value all other branches of industry, though only half the area of the kingdom was under cultivation. Many parts which are now flourishing cornfields, or fruitful orchards, were then barren wastes, forest, or marsh. Deer wandered in troops through the woods; wild bulls and wild boars roamed in the forests; eagles frequented the coasts; huge bustards strayed over the downs; and immense flocks of cranes covered the marshes of the eastern counties. The domestic animals, as the sheep and the ox, were of small size. Native horses were only valued at about fifty shillings each. The best breeds were imported. Spanish jennets were prized as saddle-horses, and grey Flemish mares for the carriages of the aristocracy.

Four-fifths of the population were scattered in rural villages and small country towns. No place in the kingdom,

excepting London, contained 30,000 souls. Bristol, then the first English seaport, and Norwich, the first manufacturing town, scarcely numbered so many as this. The county towns were the centres of the greatest population; but York, the capital of the North, and Exeter of the West, only contained about 10,000 people. The great seats of modern manufactures were only insignificant places. Manchester, the centre of the cotton manufacture, was a mean-looking market-town, containing a population of about 6,000. Leeds, the chief seat of the woollen trade, had about 7,000 persons. Sheffield, which now sends its cutlery to all parts of the world, possessed a population of about 4,000. Birmingham, just then rising into notice for its hardware, contained about the same number. Liverpool, now the first seaport in the world, could only boast of 1,400 tons of shipping and about 200 sailors. Its population of 4,000 has now increased to more than half a million. Bath, Buxton, and Tunbridge Wells, were the fashionable watering-places of the time; but the accommodation was very poor, and the food-supply bad. The modern places of attraction for pleasure-seekers, as Brighton, Harrogate, Cheltenham, and Scarborough, were almost unknown.

London, which now contains more than 3,000,000 people, had, when Charles II. died, a population of about 500,000. The City was the most important part of the capital. Before the great fire, it was crowded with houses of wood and plaster, built with the upper stories overhanging the shops below. After that calamity, houses of brick and stone were raised, but the streets were almost as narrow as before. The merchants and tradesmen made the City their home, and many of their dwellings were as magnificent as the abodes of the nobility. The houses were not numbered. Shops were distinguished by painted sign-boards, as the Saracen's Head, the Royal Oak, &c.; and when messengers were sent on errands, some well-known house was mentioned as a guide. Only one bridge spanned the Thames, and that was lined on both sides with old wooden houses. The streets of the capital were ill-paved and badly drained. In wet weather the gutters were swollen with rain, and the

narrow ways covered with mud. Foot-passengers struggled to keep to the wall, to escape the dirt thrown right and left by passing vehicles. When night came on, few ventured to encounter the danger of the streets, which were not even lighted till the last year of Charles II., and then only during the winter. From the overhanging windows, pails were emptied without any regard for those below, and thieves were on the alert to waylay benighted citizens. Swaggering, dissolute young gentlemen made it their pleasure, under cover of the darkness, to parade the streets, insulting all who came in their way, and by no means scrupulous in using the rapier which dangled at their side. The watchmen of the time were powerless to keep the peace, and, anxious for their own safety and comfort, they preferred tippling at the ale-house to encountering footpads or roystering youngsters.

The coffee-houses of London were quite an institution of the period. At a time when the modern newspaper was unknown, men lounged in these places to hear news and discuss the scandal of the day. The first of these establishments was set up during the Commonwealth, by a Turkey merchant. They soon became very general, and were frequented by men of all classes. Every profession and every religious and political opinion had its own particular places of resort. Each coffee-house had its presiding orator, to whom admiring crowds lent a willing ear. In the time of Charles II. the poet Dryden was the ruling spirit in the most fashionable of these establishments, and thither men of all ranks crowded, winter and summer, to hear him talk.

The means of communication between one place and another were very deficient. The roads were in a most wretched state, and canals were scarcely yet thought of. In wet weather it was almost impossible to get along the highways in any kind of carriage. The mud lay deep to the right and left, and oftentimes a coach stuck so fast in the mire that a farmer's team was needed to pull it out. The erection of toll-gates, in 1663, was the first step towards improving the means of transit. On the best highways, goods were usually carried in stage waggons, and travellers

who were too poor to go by coach crowded into these conveyances. On less frequented roads, pack-horses were used to convey goods. The rich travelled in their own coaches, but six horses at least were required to overcome the badness of the roads. For the convenience of the public, towards the close of the reign of Charles II., coaches began to run thrice a week from London to the chief provincial towns, but no conveyance went further north than York, or further west than Exeter. A 'Flying-Coach' took a day to complete the journey from London to Oxford, and this was considered a wonderful feat. The ordinary speed of such diligences was in summer fifty miles per day, and in winter thirty. The charge was at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ per mile.

One set-off to the inconvenience of travelling was the great comfort of the roadside inns. Every village had its hostelry, where the traveller might find rest and refreshment, and England from early times has been famous for its inns.

Bad roads and conveyances were not the only drawbacks to travelling in this period. Mounted highwaymen infested all the most frequented ways, and it was not safe even for a public coach in broad day to pass certain places unless the passengers were well armed. The neighbourhood of London was the favourite haunt of these thieves, and Hounslow Heath and Finchley Common were long celebrated for the exploits of highwaymen. The landlords of some inns were no doubt in league with the robbers, and thus enabled them to infest many roads with impunity.

Learning and Literature.—The troubles of the seventeenth century were unfavourable to the progress of education. The literary spirit which distinguished the latter half of Elizabeth's reign continued to exert its influence till political strife and the stern realities of civil war engrossed men's attention. The period of the Restoration was not favourable to the revival of learning. The upper classes, whose education had been neglected in the discords of previous years, no longer able to appreciate the beautiful literary models which had delighted their fathers, were

content to imitate the court in its patronage of the frivolous and immoral literature of the time. Female education especially was at a very low standard. A young lady with a mere smattering of learning was considered a prodigy, but a lady of rank could scarcely be found who could write a letter equal in style of composition and spelling to that of a fairly taught national-school girl of our day. The licentiousness of the age following the Commonwealth degraded woman's mind, and ignorance and frivolity were almost regarded as desirable accomplishments.

The appliances of education in this period were very meagre. There was nothing equal to our modern newspaper. During the civil war numerous little papers were published weekly, and sometimes bi-weekly, but the Licensing Act, passed soon after the Restoration, forbade the publishing of political news. Some years later, the 'London Gazette,' under the sanction of the crown, came out twice a week. The paper contained little of importance, and made up about two pages of moderate size.

People who lived at a distance from the capital were kept informed of what was going on by means of newsletters, which were sent once a week. As there were no provincial newspapers, the country families depended for information upon paid London correspondents. Except in the capital, and in Oxford and Cambridge, there was scarcely a printer in the kingdom. York was the only place north of the Trent which could boast of a press.

Books were very scarce in the country, in consequence of the difficulty and expense of sending packets from one place to another. A few volumes of theology on a clergyman's shelf, or a few books on a squire's table, were considered quite a library. In London, students and others made up for the deficiencies of their book-shelves by crowding booksellers' shops, and poring over their stores for a day together.

Science made little progress during the first half of this period. Napier, however, invented his system of logarithms, and Dr. Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood. But the establishment of the Royal Society, in

1660, gave such an impulse to scientific pursuits that it became quite necessary to the character of a fine gentleman to talk about the wonders of nature, and telescopes and magnets. Chemistry became a fashionable study under Charles II. The king himself had a laboratory fitted up in Whitehall, where he spent many an hour in chemical experiments. Amongst the numerous students of science, the name of Isaac Newton stands out as the most illustrious. To this distinguished philosopher we owe those discoveries which made England at that time foremost in the study of natural science.

In art, the English people were far behind their neighbours. Charles I. was a great patron of the fine arts, and his galleries were adorned with several beautiful pictures by Titian, Raffaelle, and others. Under his patronage, Rubens and Vandyke resided in England. Many of the beautiful paintings which he had collected were ordered to be sold by the Parliamentary leaders, but Cromwell bought the cartoons of Raffaelle, and thus preserved them to the nation. In architecture, Inigo Jones and Christopher Wren are the only two Englishmen whose names are distinguished in connection with art during this period. All the painters and sculptors of note found in England were foreigners. Lely and Godfrey Kneller came from Westphalia; Cibber, the sculptor, was a Dane; and Gibbons, the carver, a Dutchman.

English literature continued to flourish in all its splendour during the first quarter of the seventeenth century. The drama was perfected by the immortal genius of Shakspeare, and by his contemporaries Beaumont and Fletcher. Bacon made known to the world his new system of philosophy, by which the truth of nature and history might be thoroughly investigated. The period of civil war was not favourable to literary progress, but still there were many writers of undying fame even in those days of strife. In verse Milton produced unrivalled epics; Jeremy Taylor and Baxter shone in prose; and Bunyan, the 'Dreamer of Bedford,' gave to the world his celebrated fictions.

The period following the Restoration produced many dramatic writers, of whom Dryden is the most eminent. The theatre was the only field in which a man of wit and genius could employ his literary talents, and therefore every man who had to earn his bread by the pen wrote plays. But the literature of the time was very impure. Puritan hatred to the drama produced a mischievous reaction, and it became fashionable to laud to the skies whatever the Roundheads had condemned. Hence the favourite plays were those in which virtue was ridiculed, scruples derided, religion mocked, and, in fine, all vicious indulgences applauded.

The close of the period is distinguished for its numerous brilliant writers, both in prose and verse. The reign of Anne has been called the Augustan age of English literature. Literary tastes prevailed amongst the upper classes, and ensured for every author of any note encouraging patronage.

LEADING AUTHORS OF THE STUART PERIOD.

I. POETS.

FRANCIS BEAUMONT (1586–1615) } joint authors of numerous
JOHN FLETCHER . (1576–1625) } plays.

BEN JONSON (1574–1637): in early life a soldier; then an actor; poet-laureate under James I.; author of fifteen plays extant, chiefly comedies, and numerous masques; earliest comedy, 'Every Man in His Humour.' Buried in Westminster Abbey.

PHILIP MASSINGER (1584–1640): author of numerous dramatic pieces, of which seventeen are preserved: chief play, 'A New Way to Pay Old Debts.'

JOHN MILTON (1608–1674), the greatest epic poet of modern times: author of 'Paradise Lost' and 'Paradise Regained,' which were written in poverty and blindness; numerous masques and sonnets came from his pen; wrote also in prose. His genius remained unnoticed under the Stuarts.

SAMUEL BUTLER (1612–1680), son of a Worcestershire farmer: author of a mock-heroic poem, called 'Hudibras,' which was a famous satire upon the Puritans.

JOHN DRYDEN (1631–1700), a great poet: made poet-laureate by Charles II.; author of numerous plays, and satires in verse. Chief works: 'Absalom and Achitophel,' the most perfect and powerful satire in our language; 'The Hind and Panther;' 'Alexander's Feast;' a translation of Virgil's Æneid into English verse.

II. PROSE WRITERS.

JEREMY TAYLOR (1613–1667), Bishop of Down after the Restoration: wrote on theology: author of 'Liberty of Prophesying,' 'Holy Living,' 'Holy Dying,' and many other works.

EDWARD HYDE (1608–1674), a Royalist: exiled during the Commonwealth; created Earl of Clarendon by Charles II.; author of the 'History of the Great Rebellion.'

JOHN BUNYAN (1628–1688), a tinker of Bedford: became a Baptist preacher; imprisoned twelve years for preaching; wrote in prison the celebrated 'Pilgrim's Progress.'

RICHARD BAXTER (1615–1691), a famous Presbyterian minister: one of the ejected Nonconformists in 1662; a most voluminous writer of theology; chief work, 'The Saints' Everlasting Rest.'

JOHN LOCKE (1632–1704), a philosophical writer: lived in exile during the latter years of Charles II. and James II.; author of an 'Essay on the Human Understanding,' a work still famous.

GILBERT BURNET (1643–1715), a Scotchman: exiled by James II.; a friend of William III., and appointed by him Bishop of Salisbury; a copious writer; chief work, 'History of his own Time.'

LEADING DATES OF THE STUART PERIOD.

GENERAL EVENTS.

	A.D.	
Hampton Court Conference . .	1604	James I.
Gunpowder Plot	1605	„
Authorised Translation of the Bible	1611	„

	A.D.	
Raleigh beheaded	1618	James I.
Trial of Hampden	1637	Charles I.
The 'Covenant' made in Scotland	1638	„
Execution of Archbishop Laud	1645	„
Colonel Pride's Purge	1648	„
Execution of Charles I.	1649	„
Death of Cromwell	1658	
The Savoy Conference	1661	Charles II.
The Great Plague	1665	„
Fire of London	1666	„
The Dutch in the Medway	1667	„
Rye House Plot	1683	„
Trial of the Seven Bishops	1688	James II.
Landing of the Prince of Orange	„	„
Massacre at Glencoe	1692	Wm. III. & Mary.
Trial of Sacheverell	1710	Anne.

CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES.

	A.D.	
Union of the English and Scottish Crowns	1603	James I.
Petition of Right	1628	Charles I.
The Long Parliament begins	1640	„
Star Chamber and High Commission Court abolished	1641	„
Expulsion of the Long Parliament by Cromwell	1653	Commonwealth.
Richard Cromwell resigns the Protectorate	1659	„
Restoration of the Monarchy	1660	Charles II.
Act of Uniformity passed	1662	„
The Conventicle Act	1664	„
The Five-Mile Act	1665	„
The Test Act	1673	„
The Habeas Corpus Act	1679	„
The Second Declaration of Indulgence	1688	James II.
The Revolution	„	„
The Bill of Rights	1689	Wm. III. & Mary.
The Act of Settlement	1701	William III.
Union of the English and Scottish Parliaments	1707	Anne.

CHANGES OF DOMINION, ETC.

	A.D.	
James Town, Virginia, founded	1607	James I.
Capture of Jamaica	1655	Commonwealth.
Dunkirk acquired	1658	„
Gibraltar taken	1704	Anne.

WARS, BATTLES, TREATIES.

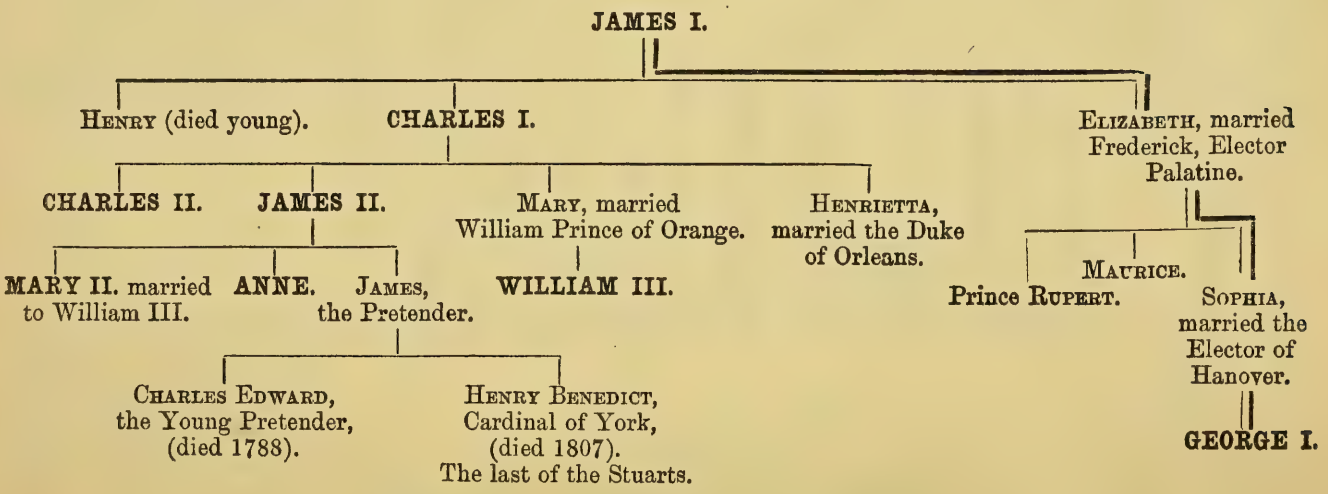
The Great Rebellion.

Battle.	*Victor.*	*Date.*
Edgehill	Indecisive	1642
Brentford	Royalists	„
Reading	Roundheads	1643
Stratton	Royalists	„
Chalgrove Field	Royalists (Hampden mortally wounded)	„
Atherton Moor	„	„
Lansdown	Favourable to Royalists	„
Roundway Down	Royalists	„
Bristol (Siege of)	„	„
Newbury	Indecisive	„
Nantwich	Parliamentarians	1644
Cropredy Bridge	Royalists	„
Marston Moor	Parliamentarians	„
Newbury	Indecisive	„
Naseby	Parliamentarians	1645
Rowton Moor	„	„
Preston	„	1648
Dunbar	Cromwell	1650
Worcester	„	1651

	A.D.	
Secret Treaty of Dover	1670	Charles II.
Battle of Sedgemoor	1685	James II.
„ Killiecrankie	1689	Wm. III. & Mary.
„ Boyne	1690	„
„ La Hogue	1692	„
Treaty of Ryswick	1697	„
Battle of Blenheim	1704	Anne.
„ Ramilies	1706	„
„ Oudenarde	1708	„
„ Malplaquet	1709	„
Treaty of Utrecht	1713	„

GENEALOGICAL TABLE

CONNECTING THE STUARTS WITH THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.



N.B.—The *double line* shows the descent of George I. from James I.

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER, or BRUNSWICK.

(GUELPH LINE.)

		A.D.
GEORGE I. (great-grandson of James I.)	began to Reign	1714
GEORGE II. (son)	„ „	1727
GEORGE III. (grandson)	„ „	1760
GEORGE IV. (son)	„ „	1820
WILLIAM IV. (brother)	„ „	1830
VICTORIA (niece)	„ „	1837

GEORGE I.

Born 1660 A.D. Began to Reign 1714 A.D. Died 1727 A.D.

The King's Accession.
Discontent of the Nation.
The Riot Act.
Rebellion in favour of the Pretender.
The Triple Alliance.
The Quadruple Alliance.
War with Spain.
The South Sea Bubble.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

The King's Accession. Discontent of the Nation. The Riot Act.

In accordance with the Act of Settlement, George, Elector of Hanover, the son of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., ascended the throne of England, and thus united the crowns of Britain and Hanover. Some of the ministers of the late queen had plotted to bring in the Pretender, but their schemes were defeated by Anne's sudden death, and the active measures of the opponents of the House of Stuart. The friends of the new dynasty, however, required the exercise of all their skill and power to establish

the sovereign firmly on the throne. There were many circumstances which tended to make George I. unpopular. He was, on his accession, fifty-four years of age, and was quite unused to English manners, and unable to read or write the English language. His person was coarse and heavy; his mind was uncultivated, and his tastes low. His wife, Sophia of Brunswick, had been left in imprisonment in Hanover, condemned to perpetual confinement for some alleged misconduct. Popular rumour assigned various reasons for this harshness, which were unfavourable to the king's popularity. As might be expected, he was devotedly attached to his native country, and England was nothing in comparison with dear Hanover. He chose his advisers from the Whig party, which had called him to the throne. The Tories, thus deprived of their ascendency in the State, were further annoyed by the measures of their opponents. A committee of the House of Commons was appointed to enquire into the conduct of the Tory leaders with regard to the treaty of Utrecht. Oxford, Bolingbroke, and Ormond, were strongly suspected of intriguing with the Pretender, and were impeached for high treason. The latter two escaped to France, but Oxford was imprisoned in the Tower for two years, and owed his life to the disagreements of the two Houses of Parliament.

The prosecution of the Tory leaders caused great excitement in the country. The riots which attended Sacheverell's trial in the previous reign were renewed. Roaring mobs surrounded the coach which conveyed Oxford to the Tower, and on every side were heard the shouts, 'Down with the Whigs!'—'High Church and Sacheverell for ever!' Dissenting meeting-houses were attacked and destroyed, and in various parts of the kingdom the riotous spirit of the mob broke out into similar acts of violence. Many of the Tories commenced an active correspondence with the Pretender, who saw in the general discontent of the nation a fair prospect of regaining his father's throne. So unpopular did the new king become, that the German ladies of the Court could scarcely take an airing without being jeered by the people. Rumour said that they came to

England for the purpose of amassing money to send to Hanover, and the humbler classes especially felt very sore on the subject. One day, one of these ladies, irritated or alarmed by the popular cries, put her head out of the carriage window, and said in broken English, 'Why do you abuse us, good peoples? We come for all your goods?' On this a fellow in the mob roared out, 'Yes, and for all our chattels too.' The Government, alarmed at the symptoms of disaffection, succeeded in passing the **Riot Act**, which empowered a magistrate to disperse, by military force, after an hour's warning, a mob of more than twelve persons, assembled to the danger of the public peace. Previous to this, a reward of 100,000*l.* had been promised for the capture of the Pretender in case of his landing.

1715 A.D.

Rebellion of 1715 in favour of the Pretender.

In the meantime the Jacobites at home and abroad were not idle. The Pretender, known on the Continent as the *Chevalier de St. George*, was making active preparations for a descent upon the island, but his hopes were suddenly blasted by the death of Louis XIV., who had promised his help. The Regent of France, the Duke of Orleans, had no personal ties whatever with the Chevalier, and declined to assist the project of invasion.

An insurrection, however, had already broken out both in Scotland and England. The **Earl of Mar**, confident in the success of the Jacobite cause, raised the standard of revolt at Braemar, and proclaimed the Pretender as James VIII. Ten thousand men responded to his call, and, fixing his headquarters at Perth, he was soon master of all Scotland north of the Forth. The royal forces under the command of the Duke of Argyle, took post at Stirling, and prevented the advance of Mar into the Lowlands.

Sept. 6, 1715 A.D.

The success of the rising in Scotland excited the Jacobites of the north of England to action. In Northumberland the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Forster, member of

Parliament for the county, took up arms for the Pretender. Only 300 horse answered to their call, and these were badly provided with weapons. Some Scottish lords on the borders rose at the same time, and a body of Highlanders was sent by the Earl of Mar to assist the movement. The combined forces of the insurgents advanced into Lancashire as far as Preston. There they were surrounded by the royal troops under General Carpenter, and all, to the number of about 1,400, surrendered at discretion. On the same day, at **Sheriffmuir**, in Perthshire, the Duke of Argyle encountered the Earl of Mar, and checked his advance southwards. (November 13.) Though the victory was undecided, the advantage on the whole remained with Argyle, since Mar, fearing to renew the combat, retreated. The account of the battle was so confused and contradictory, that a ballad-monger of the time says :—

> There's some say that we wan,
> Some say that they wan,
> Some say that nane wan at a', man,
> But ae thing I'm sure
> That at Sheriff-muir,
> A battle there was, which I saw, man,
> And we ran, and they ran,
> And they ran, and we ran,
> And we ran, and they ran awa, man.

The Pretender, expelled from France by the regent, resolved to revive the waning fortunes of his party by his personal presence. On December 22, he landed at Peterhead, attended only by six gentlemen, and without arms, money, or stores. To encourage his dispirited friends, he passed through Brechin and Dundee in royal state, and entered Perth with all the pomp of majesty. There much valuable time was wasted in preparations for his coronation at Scone. Meanwhile Argyle, having received reinforcements, advanced towards Perth. The news of his approach caused the utmost consternation in the Pretender's camp, and the Highland army speedily retreated to Montrose. The Chevalier, losing all hope, secretly took boat with Mar and some others, and escaped to France, leaving the

army to its fate. Great was the indignation of the clans on hearing of their desertion by their leaders, and, filled with grief and rage, they dispersed to their mountain glens.

But a sad fate awaited most of the prisoners taken at Preston. The men of rank were taken to London and brought to trial for high treason. Sentence of death was passed upon the Lords Derwentwater, Kenmure, Nithisdale, and several others, but only the three named were left for execution. Many condemned Jacobites, and Forster among the number, escaped from prison and sought refuge on the Continent. Nithisdale was saved by the devotion of his wife. She dressed her lord in her own clothes, and he escaped by night in that disguise out of the Tower. Derwentwater and Kenmure suffered on Tower Hill, and the estates of the former were given to Greenwich Hospital. Four persons of inferior rank were hanged in London, and twenty-two others in Lancashire, while 1,000 were banished to America. Thus ended *The Fifteen.*

The disturbed state of the country led the Government to alter the law of 1694, which provided for triennial parliaments. It was considered unsafe to have recourse to a general election in the face of the dangers threatening the State both within and without, and therefore the Whig party succeeded in passing the **Septennial Act**, which extended the duration of Parliament to seven years. **1716** A.D.

The Jacobites continued their intrigues throughout the reign, but there was no serious conspiracy on foot till after the birth of the *young* Pretender at Rome in 1720. Two years afterwards, Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, and several noblemen, formed a project for seizing the Tower, the Bank of England, and other public places, and proclaiming James III. The plot was revealed, and a barrister named Layer, suffered death, while Atterbury was deprived and banished.

The Triple Alliance. The Quadruple Alliance. War with Spain.

After the failure of *The Fifteen*, George visited his continental dominions. For the purpose of enlarging and securing his possessions, he bought from Denmark, for the sum of 1,500,000*l.*, the duchies of Bremen and Verden, which had lately been taken from Sweden. Charles XII., king of the latter country, was highly indignant at this sale, and began to intrigue with the courts of Spain and Russia for the restoration of the Stuarts. The English Government, in self-defence, concluded with France and Holland a treaty known as the **Triple Alliance**, but the death of the King of Sweden, at the siege of Fredericshall, put an end to all fear from that quarter.

Spain, however, continued her intrigues to render null and void the treaty of Utrecht, which had deprived her of many of her dominions. Cardinal Alberoni, the able minister of the Spanish court, had already succeeded in conquering Sardinia, and he further resolved to recover the other Italian possessions of Spain. His ambitious schemes led to the formation of the **Quadruple Alliance**, between England, Austria, France, and Holland. (1718 A.D.) An English fleet under Admiral Byng was sent to the Mediterranean. A battle was fought with the Spaniards off **Cape Passaro**, in which the enemy's fleet was almost destroyed. The following despatch of a certain Captain Walton, who was sent in pursuit of some ships which managed to escape from the fight, is worthy of mention. 'Sir, we have taken and destroyed all the Spanish ships and vessels which were upon the coast; the number as per margin. I am, &c., G. Walton.' Alberoni, furious at this defeat, fitted out an armament at Cadiz to aid the Pretender. Off Finisterre, a storm dispersed the squadron of invasion, and only two frigates managed to reach Scotland. Three hundred men disembarked, and being joined by some Highlanders, took up a strong position at Galashiels. There they were attacked by a royal force and defeated. (1719 A.D.) In the same year

Aug. 11, **1718** A.D.

an English squadron captured Vigo, while some French troops invaded the north of Spain. Pressed on all sides, the Spanish king concluded a treaty of peace, by which he undertook to dismiss Alberoni from office, to evacuate Sicily and Sardinia, and to renounce all pretensions to the French crown. (1720 A.D.)

Five years later, Austria and Spain entered into close alliance, and as the former country had established at Ostend a rival East India Company, the English Government strongly suspected that there was a secret understanding between the two Powers, injurious to the interests of England and Hanover. George therefore formed an alliance with France and Prussia, and concluded the treaty of Hanover. (1725 A.D.) As Russia seemed inclined to join the confederacy against England, a squadron was sent to the Baltic to check any hostile movement from that quarter. Another fleet was sent to blockade Porto Bello, but the men were decimated by the ravages of yellow fever. Meanwhile the Spaniards wasted a great deal of powder and shot in attempting to recapture Gibraltar. Austria soon withdrew from the struggle, and made peace with the allies, but Spain refused to take any part in the treaty, and continued in a state of war for two years after the death of George I.

The South Sea Bubble.

In 1710, the floating debt of the nation amounted to about 10,000,000*l.* Harley, then Lord Treasurer, proposed that the creditors should be incorporated as a company of merchants trading to the South Seas, and receive from the Government the privilege of monopoly. The plan was well received, and the 'South Sea Company' was formed. Spain, however, was too jealous to allow English traders free access to her dominions in the Southern Seas. All that could be obtained from that country was the permission, known as the **Assiento**, to supply Spanish America with 4,800 negroes annually, and to send yearly a cargo of goods to the same coasts. These privileges were secured

by the treaty of Utrecht. The disputes with Spain which occurred in this reign were prejudicial to the interests of the Company, but it flourished in spite of all opposition, and its stock was in much request. In 1720 A.D. 1720, the directors of the Company made an offer to the Government to buy up the irredeemable annuities, amounting to 800,000*l.* a year, which had been granted in the last two reigns. They undertook to pay off the entire national debt, if the different public securities were reduced to one fund in their hands, and if certain commercial privileges were guaranteed to them. They offered, besides, to provide the Government with 7,500,000*l.* if their terms were accepted. The subject was warmly debated in the House of Commons, and the company's plan was finally adopted. The annuitants were not compelled to change their government securities for the company's stock, but the directors took such care to proclaim the prospects and advantages of the South Sea trade that most of the annuitants agreed to their terms. The directors then proceeded to call for new subscriptions, and in answer to their representations of the enormous profits to be gained, money came in like water. It was rumoured that Spain was about to grant free trade to all her colonies; that Gibraltar was to be exchanged for a part of Peru; and that the gold and silver mines of South America would pour their treasures into England. Thus dazzled by the hope of wealth, crowds daily thronged Change Alley, eager to invest money in the company's stock. So great was the competition that a share of 100*l.* was sold for 1,000*l.* Numerous bubble companies arose at the same time to take advantage of the spirit of speculation. Projects of the most absurd kind found willing dupes. One scheme was the establishment of a company for carrying out an undertaking of great advantage, but nobody was to know its purpose. Each subscriber was to deposit 2*l.*, and receive a share of 100*l.* In less than six hours, 1,000 shares were taken, and the projectors decamped with their spoil the same day. The highest in the land took part in these gambling transactions. Change Alley was crammed from

morning to night with dukes, lords, country squires, parsons, dissenting ministers, brokers and jobbers, and even ladies; and the crowd was often so great that shares were sold at one end of the Alley ten per cent. higher than at the other. The Prince of Wales joined in the general scramble, became governor of a Welsh Copper Company, and pocketed 40,000*l.*

The South Sea Company bubble soon shared the fate of numerous others. The stock, which had risen to 1,000, fell to 135, and thousands of families were reduced to beggary. Great was the popular indignation when the swindle was discovered. In public meetings held all over England, the vengeance of Parliament was invoked upon the heads of the directors. Parliament took the matter in hand, and on enquiry it was found that many public men, and even persons about the court, had profited largely by the company's schemes. A severe punishment fell upon the directors whose estates were confiscated for the relief of the beggary which they had caused. The task of restoring national credit fell upon Sir Robert Walpole, afterwards Chancellor of the Exchequer, who arranged by law to assign nine millions of South Sea Stock to the Bank of England, a similar amount to the East India Company, and to repay the bonus of seven and a half millions which the Government had received. In this way, the proprietors and subscribers received about one-third of their money, but it was long before public credit was thoroughly restored.

Death and Character of the King.

In the summer of 1727, the king set out once more to visit his continental dominions. He had got as far as the frontiers of Germany, when he was suddenly taken with a fit of apoplexy. Recovering his speech, he cried out, 'Osnabruck! Osnabruck!'—the residence of his only surviving brother. His courtiers pushed on, but before the carriage reached the gate of the palace, the king had breathed his last. He was buried at Hanover.

George I., in spite of many vices, had displayed much

sagacity in ruling England. To his qualities of industry and punctuality in the discharge of business matters much of his success is due. The treatment of his wife, Sophia Dorothea of Zell, who had been imprisoned for thirty-two years, will always remain a blot upon his character.

His children were—George, who became king; and Sophia Dorothea, who married Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg, afterwards King of Prussia.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1717, the Convocation of the English clergy was suppressed, chiefly through the dissensions arising from what was called the *Bangorian Controversy.* Most of the clergy were Tories, and many of them Jacobites. Hoadley, Bishop of Bangor, a Whig in politics, had published a sermon highly offensive to the majority of his clerical brethren, and brought down upon his head the censure of Convocation. The disputes which arose in consequence caused the suppression of the clerical assembly, which was not allowed to meet again for the transaction of business until the reign of Victoria.

Among the improvements of the reign may be mentioned the introduction of silk-throwing machines from Italy. Inoculation for the small-pox was first practised in England.

GEORGE II.

Born 1683 A.D. Began to Reign 1727 A.D. Died 1760 A.D.

Walpole's Administration.
Excise Scheme.
Porteous Riots.
War with Spain.
War of the Austrian Succession.
Rebellion in favour of the Young Pretender.
The Seven Years' War.
Conquest of Canada.
Affairs in India.
Clive and the Conquest of Bengal.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Walpole's Administration. Excise Scheme. Porteous Riots.

GEORGE II. ascended the throne in the forty-fifth year of his age. Like his father, he was particularly attached to Hanover, where his early years had been spent. His residence in England had given him some knowledge of English customs and language, but he spoke English with a foreign accent. His wife, Caroline of Anspach, was a woman of great sense and virtue, and to her shrewdness and prudence he was mainly indebted for the peace and stability of his government.

George, when Prince of Wales, had lived on very bad terms with his father, and had been excluded from court. He was, therefore, by no means friendly disposed towards his father's chief minister, Sir Robert Walpole. But on the advice of his queen he retained the services of this statesman, who, for the first fifteen years of the reign, discharged the duties of Prime Minister. Walpole's policy was directed by a desire to maintain peace with all nations, and under his guidance, trade thrived, and the country prospered. Bribery is said to have been the secret of his

long political ascendency, but it required more than ordinary tact to conduct the affairs of government in those days.

The dispute with Spain, which had remained unsettled in the previous reign, was terminated by the treaty of Seville (1729), and for the next ten years English commerce with the Spanish colonies made rapid strides. One of the next noteworthy measures of Walpole's administration was his **Excise Scheme.** The Customs and Excise formed two important sources of the public revenue. The Customs are duties upon certain foreign goods imported into the country, and the Excise is a tax levied upon articles manufactured at home. Walpole, for the purpose of putting a stop to smuggling, especially in the articles of tobacco and wine, proposed to make the duties upon them payable as Excise. His plan was to warehouse the goods, to charge duty on their removal, and make the dealers subject to the Excise laws. Thus he guaranteed a great saving to the public revenue, less taxation, and an increased trade. '*London*,' he said, *would become a free port, and, in consequence, the market of the world.*' The Excise Bill met with the greatest opposition from the Tory party and the country generally. So great was the clamour, and so threatening the attitude of the people, that Walpole thought it prudent to withdraw his measure. Though supported by a majority in Parliament, he said 'he would not be the minister to enforce taxes at the expense of blood.'

1733 A.D.

In Scotland, smuggling was carried on to a large extent, and the smuggler was quite a popular character. The execution of a man engaged in this traffic caused serious riots in Edinburgh. Two smugglers, named Wilson and Robertson, were arrested and condemned to death, but the former saved his companion by an act of daring which made him a popular hero. While returning from divine service under the guard of four soldiers, he suddenly seized one by each hand, and a third by his teeth, and thus enabled his comrade to escape. Wilson, by this act, became quite an idol, and the authorities were greatly afraid that his rescue might be

1736 A.D.

attempted. On the day of execution, the city-guard, under Captain Porteous, was called out. The populace, unable to attempt a rescue, waited till the body was cut down, and then began to pelt the soldiers and hangman with stones. Porteous ordered his men to fire into the mob, and several persons were killed or wounded. For this act he was brought to trial and condemned to death, but a reprieve was sent down from London. The news of a respite caused the greatest excitement in Edinburgh, and the people resolved that Porteous should die. Forcing open the Tolbooth prison, they dragged their victim to the Grass Market and hanged him on a dyer's pole. The English Government, enraged at the outrage, proposed to take harsh measures against the Scottish capital, but milder counsels prevailed. The provost of the city was disabled from holding any office under government, and a fine of 2,000*l.* was imposed upon the townspeople for the benefit of the widow of Porteous. This affair left a very bad feeling in Scotland against the English Government, which bore bitter fruit in the Jacobite rising a few years later.

War with Spain.

The death of the queen, in 1737, deprived Walpole of a warm friend, and encouraged his opponents in Parliament to look for his speedy downfall. Disappointed in this expectation, they determined to upset his peaceful policy by forcing England into war. At this time there was much ill-feeling in the country against Spain, on account of the insults which English traders had received from the Spaniards. The Spanish Government had permitted, by the Assiento, a shipload of English merchandise to be sent annually to her colonies in South America. But the profit of this trade was so great that all sorts of excuses were made for sending English ships to the Spanish main, and an extensive smuggling trade was carried on. To prevent this traffic, the Spaniards placed guard-ships along the coasts. Intruding vessels were, consequently, searched, and their crews sometimes insulted and outraged. A

certain Captain Jenkins returned home with one of his ears wrapped up in cotton, which he said had been torn off by the commander of a Spanish guard-ship who had boarded his sloop on the high seas. Stories of this kind caused such a ferment in England that the Opposition in Parliament made a handle of them to overthrow Walpole's Government. The Prime Minister, though conscious that Spain had a just cause of grievance, was compelled by the popular outcry to demand reparation from the Spanish court. The King of Spain offered to pay 140,000*l.* for the injuries said to have been received by English merchants, and agreed to enter into negotiations for the better regulation of trade between the two countries. Spain, however, refused to give up the right of search—a right which every strong maritime Power has always claimed and exercised; and Walpole, rather than resign his post, gave way to the clamour of his opponents, and entered upon a war which he knew to be unjust and impolitic. In London joy-bells from every steeple greeted the proclamation of the war, but Walpole was heard to mutter, 'They may *ring* their bells now; they will before long be *wringing* their hands.'

1739 A.D.

In the same year, Admiral Vernon was sent to Spanish America with a small fleet. **Porto Bello**, on the Isthmus of Darien, was taken, plundered, and destroyed, with trifling loss to the victors. His success was magnified into a great triumph, and it was resolved to despatch an imposing force to South America. In 1740, Vernon and General Wentworth, with 115 ships and 12,000 soldiers, set out to attack **Carthagena**, the strongest place on the coast. Want of harmony between the commanders brought ruin upon the expedition. The storming-party were repulsed with the loss of half their number; the troops were decimated by an epidemic, and the enterprise was abandoned in utter disgrace.

While these events were taking place on the eastern coast of America, another expedition under **Anson** was sent to Peru. While doubling Cape Horn, his squadron was dispersed, and only three ships reached the Southern

Seas. With this small force he ravaged the western coast, took the town of Paita with treasure amounting to 30,000*l.*, and then, having destroyed two of his ships, he crossed the Pacific with the remaining one, in search of new adventures. He captured, after a severe fight, a large Spanish galleon, having on board a million and a half of dollars, and then returned to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope, after an absence of three years and nine months, being the first Englishman since Drake who had sailed round the world.

The disasters of the Spanish war overthrew Walpole's administration. He was compelled in 1742 to retire from office, but the king rewarded his long services with the title of Earl of Orford. He died three years afterwards. The war with Spain merged into the continental war, which troubled the peace of Europe at this time.

War of the Austrian Succession.

The continental war, known as the War of the Austrian Succession, in which England was embroiled, arose in the following manner. In 1740, Charles VI. of Austria died, leaving the succession, by a will called the **Pragmatic Sanction**, to his daughter **Maria Theresa.** Though most of the continental Powers had agreed to this arrangement, the death of Charles was immediately followed by a general scramble for his dominions. The King of Prussia, Frederick the Great, seized upon Silesia; the Elector of Bavaria claimed Hungary and Bohemia, and, supported by France, entered Vienna. Encouraged by the success of these claimants, the kings of Spain, Poland, and Sardinia demanded a share of the spoil. The high-spirited Maria Theresa withdrew to Hungary, and threw herself upon the loyalty of her nobles. Assembled in their Diet, they answered her appeals with flashing swords, and cries of 'We will die for our king, Maria Theresa.' England remained true to the Pragmatic Sanction, and was the only ally upon which Austria could depend. In 1743, some British troops under Lord Stair advanced into Germany.

Mustering, with their Austrian allies, about 40,000 men, they were confronted at the village of **Dettingen**, on the Maine, by a much larger French force, under Marshal Noailles. Stair suffered himself to be outmanœuvred, and was so closely beset that retreat seemed impossible. At this crisis, George II. joined the army. A false move on the part of the French saved the allied forces, and in the battle that followed, Noailles was driven across the Maine with great loss. The battle of Dettingen is memorable as being the last in which a British sovereign was present. The French were driven out of Germany, and the English troops withdrew to Flanders.

1743 A.D.

In the following year, France formally declared war against England, and proceeded to assist the cause of the Pretender. A French fleet, having a strong force under Marshal Saxe, appeared off the coast of Kent, but a storm prevented a landing, and the sight of an English squadron caused the enemy to retire.

The year 1745 is memorable for the defeat of the English at **Fontenoy**. Marshal Saxe had suddenly invested the important town of Tournay with a large army. A much inferior force of allies, under the command of the Duke of Cumberland, son of George II., marched to its relief. The British troops, in spite of the difficulties of the ground, and the superior forces of the enemy, broke through the French centre, and were advancing towards the village where Louis XV. and the dauphin had taken up their quarters, when they found themselves deserted by their allies, and in danger of being cut off. The retreat which followed, in the face of batteries on every side, called forth the admiration of the French, who said, as they saw the unbroken ranks retire step by step, that such a retreat was a victory. The battle of Fontenoy gave France possession of Flanders. A month later, a British force captured Louisberg, the capital of Cape Breton. The Young Pretender, in the same year, made a daring attempt to regain the throne of his fathers; but an account of this will be given separately.

The remaining years of the war passed away without any very great events. In 1747, Admiral Anson defeated a French fleet off Cape Finisterre; and a few months later, Admiral Hawke gained a similar victory off Belleisle.

The following year restored peace to Europe, for a short time, by the **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.** France and England agreed to restore their conquests, and Spain agreed to the peace without any reference to the right of search. Austria had made peace with Prussia in 1745, and the latter country was allowed to retain Silesia. In the same year, Maria Theresa's husband, Francis, Grand Duke of Tuscany, was elected emperor, and the brave lady, one of the most illustrious of Austrian sovereigns, held her throne till her death in 1780.

1748 A.D.

Rebellion in aid of the Young Pretender.

The exiled Stuarts, taking advantage of the war which has just been described, resolved to make another attempt to recover their lost inheritance. Charles Edward, son of the 'Pretender,' called in Jacobite songs 'Bonnie Prince Charlie,' set out from France with two ships and seven attendants to conquer an empire. A British man-of-war encountered the expedition, and drove one of the vessels back to Brest, while the other, containing the prince, made all sail for the Hebrides. The Young Pretender effected a landing at **Moidart** on the coast of Inverness, and unfurled his banner at Glenfinnan, where he was soon joined by many Highland chieftains. He was then in his twenty-fifth year, full of ardour and hope, and well calculated, by his manners, courage, and address, to win attachment and devotion. In person he was tall, well-formed, and active; his face was handsome, his eyes blue, and his hair fell in ringlets upon his shoulders.

July 25, 1745 A.D.

When Charles marched from Glenfinnan with 1,600 men, the Government was quite unprepared. There were scarcely 3,000 soldiers in the whole of Scotland. With

some of these, the royalist commander, Sir John Cope, marched northward from Stirling to crush the rebellion in the bud, but incautiously advancing to Inverness, he left the southern counties defenceless. Prince Charles, taking advantage of the mistake, quitted the mountains and entered Perth, where he was joined by new adherents, amongst whom was Lord George Murray. Having proclaimed his father king, as James VIII., he pushed on to Edinburgh, and without any opposition took up his abode in the palace of Holyrood.

In the meantime, Cope, having embarked his force at Aberdeen, landed at Dunbar, where he was joined by two regiments of dragoons under Colonel Gardiner, which had retired from Edinburgh in the utmost fright. With an army of about 3,000 men, he advanced to the Scottish capital. Young Charles, with an equal force, marched out to meet him, and at **Preston-Pans** the two armies came in contact. By a sudden onslaught of the Highlanders at early dawn, the royalist forces were scattered like chaff before the wind, and scarcely two hundred escaped. The artillery, colours, baggage, and military chest fell into the hands of the victors. This success gave the Young Pretender possession of Scotland, and drew to his side many wavering partisans.

Sept. 17, **1745** A.D.

The news of the battle of Preston-Pans caused the utmost consternation in England; but fortunately for the House of Brunswick, the victor returned to Edinburgh to reduce the castle, which had hitherto held out, and raise reinforcements. After loitering in the Scottish capital for nearly six weeks, the Chevalier, at the head of 5,000 men, resolved to try his fortune in England. Entering by the western border, he advanced through Carlisle, Lancaster, Manchester, and proceeded southwards as far as Derby. Though cheered and welcomed in many places along the route, the people refused to take arms in his cause, and Manchester was the only town which furnished him with any recruits, and there Colonel Townley joined his banner with two hundred men. The Highland chiefs, disappointed at the indifference of the English Jacobites, and

aware of the danger that threatened them from the British troops fast gathering on all sides, resolved to beat a retreat. General Wade, they said, with an army of 10,000 men, was only a few marches in their rear; the Duke of Cumberland, with an equal force, was close in their front; and if it were possible to give these the slip, another army on Finchley Common remained to bar their march to London. Charles remonstrated in vain, and, thoroughly dejected, he consented to return to Scotland. On December 6, the Highland army commenced its northward march. The retreat was as skilfully conducted as the advance. Penrith was reached before the royal armies came in sight, and there the pursuit of the Duke of Cumberland was gallantly checked. The River Esk was crossed on December 20; Glasgow was safely entered in a few days; and the Highlanders proceeded at once to invest Stirling. General Hawley, advancing to the relief of the town, met with a disgraceful defeat. But the cause of the Pretender, in spite of this success, was virtually lost. Many of the Highland clans lost heart and withdrew to their homes, and the appearance of the Duke of Cumberland with a strong army forced the remainder to retreat from Stirling to the mountains. After three months of inaction among the Grampians, the duke came upon the rebel army, numbering about 5,000 men, on **Culloden Moor**, near Inverness. In less than an hour, the rebel forces were in full flight, hotly pursued by the victors. No mercy was shown to the vanquished, and the duke's victory was tarnished by the slaughter of many innocent people and the destruction of Highland villages. Long afterwards, the victorious commander was known as the 'Butcher.'

April 16, **1746** A.D.

The unfortunate Chevalier fled to the mountains. A reward of 30,000*l.* was set upon his head; but though during five months of wandering and hiding he had to trust to the fidelity of many persons of all ranks, no one was found base enough to betray him. After many hair-breadth escapes and romantic adventures, he embarked on board a French privateer, and, though chased by two

English cruisers, safely landed near Morlaix, in Brittany.

Sept. 29, 1746 A.D. Meantime, the courts of law were busy in trying the adherents of his cause. Many of the chieftains escaped, but the lords Kilmarnock, Balmerino, and Lovat were beheaded on Tower Hill. They were the last persons who suffered in this manner in England, and the axe and block used on that occasion are still to be seen in the Tower of London. About eighty persons in all suffered death for their share in the 'Forty-Five,' and some of them underwent all the hideous penalties of high treason. The clansmen were forbidden to wear the Highland costume; tenure of land by military service was declared unlawful; the chieftains were deprived of most of their power; and the office of sheriff, long considered hereditary, was vested in the crown.

The 'Forty-Five' was the last serious effort of the exiled Stuarts to regain the throne, though Jacobite intrigues continued a few years longer. James, the 'Old Pretender,' died in 1765. His son, Charles Edward, expelled from France by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, found refuge in the territories of the pope, and for a long time kept up a correspondence with his friends in England. About the year 1750 he secretly visited London. Disappointment at last broke down his fortitude, and, assuming the title of Count D'Albany, he became a confirmed drunkard, and died of apoplexy at Rome, January 30, 1788. His only brother, Henry Benedict, took the empty title of Henry IX., but he lived quietly at Rome to a good old age as Cardinal of York. During the latter part of his life, he and his brother's widow lived upon the bounty of George III. of England. He, the last male heir of the Stuart line, died in 1807, bequeathing to the English king the crown jewels which James II. had taken with him on his retreat to the Continent in 1688, and many valuable documents.

The Seven Years' War. Conquest of Canada.

After the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, many causes of difference arose between England and France, especially with

reference to the interests of the two countries in India and America. In the latter country, England had established colonies on the eastern coast, while France had colonised Canada and Louisiana. The French proposed to connect these distant settlements by erecting a chain of forts from Niagara to the mouth of the Mississippi, and thus shut out the English colonists from the lucrative fur trade with the Indians. As the French persisted in their design, in spite of the remonstrances of the British Government, orders were given to the colonists to prevent them by force. In 1754, Major Washington, afterwards so famous in the American War of Independence, headed an expedition against Fort Duquesne, now called Pittsburgh, on the Ohio. In the following year, troops were sent from England under General Braddock; but this officer, unused to warfare in the forests of America, fell into an ambuscade, and was killed with 700 of his men, while operating against the same fort. The relations with France were thus in a critical state, when a war broke out on the Continent, known from its duration as the **Seven Years' War,** in which England took part.

The cause of the quarrel is to be attributed to the ambition of Frederick the Great of Prussia. Austria formed a secret treaty with France, and another with Russia, Poland, Saxony, and Sweden, for the partition of Prussia. The plot was revealed to Frederick, who immediately seized Dresden, the capital of Saxony, and so began the Seven Years' War. England, already in a state of war with France, sided with Prussia. India and America were the chief theatres of the strife as far as our own country was concerned, but the opening campaigns were not favourable to our arms.

1756 A.D.

Just before the declaration of war, the French sent a fleet and army to capture the island of Minorca, then belonging to England. An English squadron under Admiral Byng was sent to its relief. In an action with the enemy, Byng allowed the French fleet to escape, and, instead of remaining to relieve the fort closely invested by the land forces, sailed away to Gibraltar to refit. This want of

judgment caused the loss of the island, and produced in England the greatest indignation. Byng was brought to trial on the charge of cowardice, and shot on the quarter-deck of the 'Monarch,' in Portsmouth harbour.

The year 1757 was also unfavourable to the English arms. The command of the army in Hanover had been intrusted to the Duke of Cumberland, but the disastrous defeat of Prussia at Kolin enabled the French to so hem in the duke as to force him to agree to the Convention of **Closter-Seven**, by which his 30,000 men were disbanded. The fortunes of England seemed now at their lowest ebb, when a reconstruction of the ministry at home changed the tide of affairs. The moving spirit of the new ministry was **William Pitt**, 'the Great Commoner.' Born in 1708 and educated at Oxford, he commenced life by serving as a cornet in the Life Guards Blue. In 1735, he entered Parliament as member for Old Sarum, and became so troublesome to Walpole's ministry, that he was dismissed from the army. Henceforth he devoted himself to politics, and his talents as a statesman and an orator soon obtained for him a leading place in the government of the country. Directing all his genius to retrieve the disasters of the English arms, the vigour of his policy was felt far and wide, and the fortunes of England were everywhere attended with success.

In 1758, Prussia, having won the great victories of Rossbach and Leuthen, was encouraged to persevere by a subsidy of 670,000*l.* from England, while Pitt was planning vast campaigns against France in all parts of the world. The ratification of the Convention of Closter-Seven was refused; the Hanoverian army was reorganised, and the Electorate recovered. In Africa, **Senegal** and **Goree** were taken from the French. In America, **Louisburg** and **Fort Duquesne** met with a similar fate. The successes in India will be related by themselves. Nearer home, an expedition was successful in destroying **St. Malo** and its shipping, and a like success attended an attack upon the works of Cherbourg.

The following year was still more propitious to our arms. On sea the English fleets were everywhere victorious.

Admiral Boscawen defeated the French off the bay of Lagos in Spain; but the greatest victory was won in **Quiberon Bay**, where Admiral Hawke, undeterred by a pitiless tempest and the dangers of an unknown coast, almost annihilated a superior French force. These successes entirely crippled the naval power of France, and prevented her from undertaking any operations of importance during the remainder of the war. Meantime on land, Prussia, assisted by some British troops, gained the decisive battle of **Minden**, where the French were only saved from destruction by Lord George Sackville, who commanded the English cavalry, and thrice refused to charge.

In America, Pitt's plans were crowned with success. Proposing the conquest of Canada, this eminent statesman organised four different expeditions, all of which were to meet under the walls of Quebec. The expedition from England, consisting of 8,000 men and a fleet of forty-two ships, was placed under the command of General **Wolfe**, a young officer of great promise. Arriving at his destination before the other three corps, Wolfe resolved to attack the city, though it was protected by a superior French force under Montcalm, the governor. Landing his men by night at the foot of the Heights of Abraham, which commanded the town, he directed them to scale the steep cliffs as quietly as possible, and in the morning the French, to their dismay, saw the English troops drawn up on the top of the table land. In the battle that followed, both commanders received mortal wounds. As Wolfe was leading his men to the final charge, two shots brought him down, and he was carried to the rear mortally wounded. As he lay dying, an officer shouted 'See how they run!' 'Who run?' said Wolfe. 'The enemy,' replied he. 'Then God be praised!' answered Wolfe; 'I shall die happy;' and with these words he expired, at the early age of thirty-three. Quebec surrendered a few days afterwards, and in the following year the whole of Canada was reduced. The English were also successful in the West Indies, where the French lost **Guadaloupe**.

1759 A.D.

The remainder of the war belongs to the next reign.

Affairs in India. Clive and the Conquest of Bengal.

While the English arms were reaping laurels in America and nearer home, important affairs were taking place in India. When the East India Company began its operations in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the dynasty of the Monguls, or Moguls, held the supreme authority in India. The founder of the Mogul Empire was Timour, or Tamerlane, who, descending from the mountains of Hindu Coosh, stormed the imperial city of Delhi in 1398. His descendants, among the most celebrated of whom was Baber and Akbar, extended their rule till nearly the whole peninsula was united under the sceptre of Aurungzebe (1666–1707). After his death, many of the native princes threw off the Mogul yoke, and asserted their independence. The collapse of the empire was the signal for needy adventurers to try their hands in founding kingdoms, and thus Bengal became the domain of one, Mysore the realm of another, and in the Carnatic rajahs and nabobs innumerable assumed the reins of government. The Great Mogul still nominally ruled at Delhi, but his real authority was only of a limited extent. The disorders which accompanied the decline of a great empire laid India open to European conquest.

The Portuguese and the Dutch were the first European nations who formed commercial relations with the natives. In 1599, some London merchants started the East India Company, and a few years afterwards set up small trading factories, first at Surat, and then at Madras (Fort St. George), and Tegnapatam (Fort St. David), on the Coromandel coast. To these places Bombay was added in the reign of Charles II., and towards the close of the same century, a grant of land on the Hooghly was obtained. On the latter site a fort was erected, called Fort William, around which the great town of Calcutta has since grown. The French, following the example of their neighbours, took possession of the Mauritius, Bourbon, and other islands, and established a great settlement at Pondicherry,

and another at Chinsura in Bengal. Neither the English nor the French had at first any idea of making territorial conquests. Trade was the object of both peoples, but commercial rivalry led to quarrels and intrigues, which finally ended in a British Indian empire.

During the war of the Austrian succession, the French governor of the Mauritius captured Madras (1746), and kept possession of it till the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. About this time Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry, taking advantage of the quarrels of the native princes, formed the design of establishing a French empire in India. The Carnatic was just then the scene of a struggle between rival competitors for the dominion. Dupleix interfered in behalf of one of the claimants, and succeeded in the undertaking. As a reward, he was made Viceroy of the Carnatic, and seemed in a fair way of realising the dream of his ambition. The English, regarding with dismay the successes of their rivals, were compelled in self-defence to take part in the quarrels of the native chiefs, and very naturally took opposite sides to the French.

Fortunately for English interests, there was a young man in the employ of the East India Company whose genius enabled him to cope successfully with the ambitious Dupleix. **Robert Clive**, a clerk at Madras, who went to India at the age of eighteen, was the man destined to lay the foundations of our empire in that country. The French, everywhere successful, were besieging the only ally of the English in Trinchinopoly, when Clive, abandoning the pen for the sword, put himself at the head of a small force, and suddenly captured **Arcot** (1751). This success saved Trinchinopoly, and so turned the tide of victory against the French that Dupleix, foiled in his hope of conquest, was eventually compelled to return to Europe, leaving his rival master of the situation.

In the year 1756, the sovereignty of Bengal fell to a young man named Surajah-Dowlah, who hated the English exceedingly. Picking a quarrel with the settlers at Calcutta, he marched against the place, induced the small garrison of 200 men to surrender, and then threw into a

dungeon all the Europeans, consisting of 145 men and one woman. This cell, or **Black Hole**, was 18 feet long by 14 feet wide, and had only two small windows, closely barred, and on a level with the ceiling. The sufferings of the unfortunate prisoners were horrible. It was the hottest season of the year; scarcely a breath of air could enter the cell, and many of the entombed victims were severely wounded. In their agony they fought, and shrieked, and tore each other down in vain attempts to reach certain water-skins which their brutal guards pushed in mockery against the bars of the windows. The night of horror passed away, and when the door was opened in the morning only twenty-three were found alive, and of these several died in a day or two. Calcutta was sacked, and the English forbidden to settle any more in the province.

1756 A.D.

Clive, now raised to the rank of lieutenant-colonel, was acting as governor of Fort St. David, when news of the outrage reached him. Collecting a force of 2,400, of whom only 900 were Europeans, he recaptured Calcutta, and compelled Surajah-Dowlah to restore all the factories and the privileges which the English had previously possessed. He then turned his arms against the French settlement of Chandanagore, and took it. This attack roused the anger of the Nabob, who collected all his forces to crush the daring Englishman. With an army of 50,000 men and an enormous train of artillery, the Nabob marched to **Plassey.** Clive, who could only muster 3,000 men and ten pieces of artillery, of which force two-thirds were Sepoys, resolved at all hazards to attack the host of the enemy. Complete success attended this deed of daring, and the victorious battle of Plassey made the English masters of Bengal. In the Carnatic, war with the French was continued with varying success till the beginning of 1761, when the English took Pondicherry, razed its walls to the ground, and put an end for ever to the schemes of French ambition in India. Clive then returned home loaded with wealth, received an Irish peerage, and entered the House of Commons.

1757 A.D.

Death and Character of the King.

Whilst success was crowning the arms of England in all parts of the world, George II. suddenly died at Kensington, of heart disease, within a few days of completing his seventy-seventh year. (October 25, 1760.)

In person, George was a man of small stature, good figure, and fair complexion. In character, he closely resembled his father, both morally and intellectually. His partiality for the Whigs, and fondness for Hanover, for which he spent no end of treasure, were very marked.

He had, in all, eight children: Frederick Prince of Wales; Anne, married the Prince of Orange; William Duke of Cumberland; Mary, married the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel; Louisa, married the King of Denmark; and three other daughters. The Prince of Wales was killed by the blow of a cricket-ball in 1751. Of his nine children, the eldest was George III., who succeeded his grandfather on the throne.

Miscellaneous Facts.

This reign is memorable for the rise of the sect of the Wesleyans or Methodists. The author of this religious body was **John Wesley**, who, when a student at Oxford, used to hold meetings for prayer and religious discussion in his college rooms. Having laboured in Georgia for some time with his brother Charles as missionaries, they returned to England, and, dissatisfied with the apathy of the Church, commenced open-air preaching. The same good work was carried on by a distinguished preacher named George Whitfield, who founded the sect known as Calvinistic Methodists. These clergymen met with great opposition from the dignitaries of the Church; but religion owes much to their zeal and self-sacrifice. The movement of the Wesleys roused the English Church from its indifference, and imparted to it an impulse which is felt even to the present day.

A reform of the Calendar, or **New Style** of reckoning time, took place in this reign. Hitherto the year had been calculated according to the standard adopted by Julius Cæsar, which gave to the year 365 days 6 hours. This was afterwards found to be too much by eleven minutes. In 1582, Pope Gregory XIII. reformed the *Julian Year*, and reduced it to its exact length. The New Style, as it was called, was adopted by all European countries except England, Russia, and Sweden. As the error in reckoning had now amounted to eleven days, England, by Act of Parliament, accepted the New Style in 1752. It was resolved to omit eleven days in the month of September by calling the 3rd of the month the 14th; and by the same Bill the year was to commence on the 1st of January, instead of March 25. This change of time caused much dissatisfaction among the masses, who called it a popish measure, and thought that they had been robbed of eleven days. Sweden followed the example of England in 1753; but Russia still reckons her year according to the Old Style.

The **Law of Marriage** was regulated by Parliament in 1753. Previously, marriage could be performed at any place or time without parental consent or any conditions whatever. To prevent scandals and abuses for the future, a law was passed by which marriages could only be allowed after banns or licence.

Georgia was colonised by General Oglethorpe in 1732; and **Halifax**, in Nova Scotia, called after the Earl of Halifax, was founded in 1750. Among the improvements of the reign, the most noteworthy are, the establishment of the **British Museum** in 1753; the invention of **Fahrenheit's Thermometer** in 1730, and Hadley's **Quadrant** in 1731; the construction of **Time-pieces** in 1735; the invention of the **Lightning Conductor** by Franklin in 1735; the commencement of the Bridgewater Canal by Brindley in 1758; and the first improvement of the stocking-loom, known as the 'Derby ribs,' by Jedediah Strutt in 1759.

LEADING AUTHORS UNDER GEORGE I. AND GEORGE II.

POETS.

JOSEPH ADDISON (1672–1719), distinguished more in prose: chief poems, 'The Campaign,' and 'Cato,' a tragedy; author of many beautiful essays in the 'Spectator' and the 'Tatler.'

ALEXANDER POPE (1688–1744), the greatest poet of his time, and also a distinguished prose writer: chief works, 'The Rape of the Lock,' an 'Essay upon Man,' 'Moral Essays,' a translation of Homer's Iliad.

JAMES THOMPSON (1700–1748), a poet of Roxburghshire: chief works, 'The Seasons,' in blank verse, and the 'The Castle of Indolence.'

EDWARD YOUNG (1681–1765), author of 'Night Thoughts.'

ALLAN RAMSAY (1686–1758), a native of Lancashire: author of many short poems: chief work, a pastoral drama called 'The Gentle Shepherd.'

PROSE WRITERS.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON (1642–1727): Professor in Cambridge University: discovered the Law of Gravitation; chief works, the 'Principia,' a treatise on Natural Philosophy.

SIR RICHARD STEELE (1676–1729), a famous essayist: started the 'Tatler' in 1709, and the 'Spectator' in 1711; wrote also some comedies.

DANIEL DEFOE (1661–1731), in early life a Whig newspaper writer; at the age of fifty-eight commenced prose fiction; chief work, 'Robinson Crusoe,' published in 1719.

JONATHAN SWIFT (1667–1745), Dean of St. Patrick's Dublin, an eminent satirical writer: chief works, 'Gulliver's Travels, 'The Tale of a Tub,' and the 'Battle of the Books.' Died mad.

HENRY ST. JOHN (Viscount Bolingbroke) (1678–1751), a brilliant orator and distinguished political writer: author of 'Letters on the Study and Use of History.'

JOSEPH BUTLER (1692–1752), Bishop of Durham: chief work, 'The Analogy of Religion to Nature.'

LEADING ARTISTS.

SIR JAMES THORNHILL (1676–1734), a famous painter: painted the Dome of St. Paul's Cathedral, the Halls of Greenwich Hospital, and Blenheim Palace, and the Cartoons of Raffaelle.

SIR JOHN VANBRUGH (1666–1726), a great architect: chief works, Castle Howard, Yorkshire, and Blenheim Palace.

GEORGE III.

Born 1738 A.D. Began to Reign 1760 A.D. Died 1820 A.D.

The King's Accession.
End of the Seven Years' War.
Peace of Paris.
John Wilkes.
The War of American Independence.
War of the French Revolution.
Treaty of Amiens.
The Irish Rebellion.
Union of England and Ireland.
Second War with France.
Battle of Trafalgar.
The Peninsular War.
War with the United States of America.
Napoleon's Escape from Elba.
Battle of Waterloo.
Affairs in India.
Warren Hastings.
Regency of the Prince of Wales.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

The King's Accession. End of the Seven Years' War. Peace of Paris. John Wilkes.

GEORGE III., eldest son of Frederick Prince of Wales, succeeded his grandfather in the twenty-third year of his age. He was the first monarch of his house who could be regarded as English in feeling. His first speech to the Parliament contained words which showed that England had obtained at last a native king. 'Born and educated in this country,' said George, 'I glory in the name of Briton.' The coronation of the young king was witnessed by Charles Edward Stuart, the Young Pretender, who had come over in disguise, and mixed with the crowd in Westminster Abbey.

The accession of George III. wrought many changes. During the last two reigns the Whigs had held the reins of

power, but the education of the young king had been chiefly directed by Lord Bute, a Scotch nobleman of opposite political views; and his inclination, in consequence, led him towards the Tory party. This soon became evident in the changes which were made in the ministry; and the Tories, so long excluded from office, rejoiced in the appointment of Lord Bute as Secretary of State, and took courage. The purity of George's domestic life produced a most beneficial change in the manners of the higher classes. His wife, the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, shared her husband's piety and simple tastes; and, for the first time since the reign of Charles I., the English court gave the example of a pure and happy home.

Meanwhile, the Seven Years' War was being carried on with vigour under the direction of Pitt, Secretary for Foreign Affairs. In 1761, English fleets had captured Dominica in the West Indies, and Belleisle on the coast of Brittany. Just about that time, France secretly formed with Spain and Naples a **Family Compact**, by which they guaranteed the integrity of each other's dominions. Pitt, then in negotiation with France for peace, construed the treaty as a threat to England, broke off further correspondence, and urged immediate war against Spain. The peace party in the Cabinet, headed by Bute, rejected the proposal, and the 'Great Commoner' resigned his post of minister. He refused all offers of royal favours, except a pension of 3,000*l.* a year, and the title of Baroness Chatham for his wife.

The new ministry, of which Lord Bute was the chief, was compelled soon after to declare war against Spain (1762). In the West Indies, the English carried everything before them. The French lost all their possessions in that quarter; but the most brilliant exploit was the capture of **Havanna** from the Spaniards, who lost at the same time fourteen sail of the line, and treasure amounting to three millions sterling. Spain was equally unfortunate in the East and on the seas. Manilla, the capital of the Philippine Islands, was taken by an expedition from Madras, and two

galleons laden with silver from America fell a prey to English cruisers. Our allies in Germany were also successful.

The war was brought to a close by the **Treaty of Paris**. France ceded to England *Canada*, *Nova Scotia*, *Cape Breton*, *Tobago*, *Dominica*, *St. Vincent*, *Granada*, and *Senegal*, but she was to have the right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, and two islets as fishing stations. Minorca was to be restored in exchange for Belleisle. Spain ceded Florida, and the right of cutting log-wood in Honduras, in exchange for Havanna. In the same year, Prussia and Austria made peace by the treaty of Hubertsburg, by which the possession of Silesia was confirmed to the former country.

Feb. 10, **1763** A.D.

The peace of Paris was opposed by Pitt as being inadequate to the money spent in the war. The national debt had risen to 122,600,000*l.*, and that statesman thought this expense demanded better terms for England. The people generally were of the same opinion. Bute became most unpopular, and in many places he was burnt in the effigy of a boot-jack (*John*, Lord *Bute*). Frightened by the popular clamour, he resigned, and was succeeded by George Grenville. The king, in his speech to Parliament, declared that the peace was honourable to the country. **John Wilkes**, member for Aylesbury, and editor of a paper called the 'North Briton,' made a scurrilous attack upon the speech in No. 45 of his paper, and charged the king with having uttered a lie. The new minister had Wilkes arrested by a general warrant (that is, one in which no person is named) and sent to the Tower, but the Lord Chief Justice ordered his release as a member of Parliament. The House of Commons voted by a large majority that the 'North Briton,' No. 45, was a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and that the said paper should be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. Meanwhile, Wilkes brought an action against the Secretary of State for his illegal arrest, and obtained 1,000*l.* damages and a condemnation of general warrants. He himself had then to answer the charge of libel, for which he was found

guilty and outlawed. Returning from France in 1768, he was elected member of Parliament for Middlesex, but the House refused to receive him. The popular favour, which had encouraged him in his previous contest with Government, returned with ten-fold force. He was regarded as the champion of liberty; pictures and busts of him were sold everywhere; 'Wilkes and liberty' resounded throughout the kingdom; and riots in his favour occurred in many places. Four times the men of Middlesex returned him to Parliament, in spite of the refusal of the Commons to allow him to take his seat. In 1769, he proceeded against Lord Halifax for the seizure of his papers, and obtained 4,000*l.* damages. He eventually became Lord Mayor of London, and was allowed at last to take his place in the House of Commons.

The War of American Independence.

During the Seven Years' War that had been carried on by England against the French settlements in North America—all of which were captured—she involved herself in a heavy debt. The English settlements then consisted of thirteen colonies, having a population of two millions of whites and half a million of coloured people. Grenville, the English Prime Minister, proposed to increase the revenue by imposing the Stamp Act upon the American colonists, by which he expected to receive 10,000*l.* annually. This measure created the greatest opposition in America. The colonists adopted the principle of *no taxation without representation*, and, as they were not represented properly in their own assemblies, over whose acts the Crown had a veto, they denied the right of England to tax them.

1765 A.D.

A change of ministry brought about a repeal of the obnoxious Stamp Act in the following year. This administration soon gave way to one under the leadership of Pitt, who was raised to the peerage, with the title of Earl of Chatham. The new ministry, in 1767, passed a Bill for levying in America import duties upon glass, paper, painters' colours, and tea. The colonists opposed these

with the same determination as before, and resolved not to pay. In 1770, Lord North became Prime Minister, and repealed all the offensive duties except that on tea; but these concessions did not allay the spirit of opposition in America. Rather than pay the tax of threepence per pound upon tea, the colonists abstained altogether from the use of the beverage, except when they could get a supply from the numerous smugglers, who drove a good trade on the coast during this wordy strife.

In 1773, three ships, laden with tea, having entered the port of Boston, were boarded by twenty daring men, disguised as Mohawk Indians. They knocked out the heads of 343 chests of tea, and flung into the sea their contents, valued at 18,000*l.*

The Home Government, enraged at this outrage, proceeded to punish the people of Boston by passing a Bill to remove the Custom-house of the port to the more loyal town of Salem (1774). This measure was followed by the Massachusetts Government Bill, dissolving the House of Assembly in that State, and enacting that its members should henceforth be appointed by the crown. These acts of vengeance were strongly opposed by the Earl of Chatham and Charles James Fox. At the same time, Benjamin Franklin, residing in London as the agent of the Massachusetts House of Assembly, did his best to effect a reconciliation, and avert the dreadful contest which seemed imminent. While troops were pouring into Boston to enforce the laws, all the States, except Georgia, met in a General Congress at Philadelphia, from which they issued the celebrated 'Declaration of Right,' claiming their privileges as British subjects, and resolved not to hold any commercial intercourse with the mother-country until their grievances were redressed. An address, forwarded to the king from the Congress, and supported by the eloquence of Chatham, Burke, and Fox, received no consideration. Neither the Government nor the colonies were disposed to give way, and nothing remained but an appeal to arms.

1774 A.D.

The first outbreak of hostilities was occasioned by an

attack of the British troops, under General Gage, upon the town of Concord, where the defiant colonists were holding a House of Assembly, and concentrating military stores, and raising militia. After a night's march from Boston, the troops forced their way into Concord, and destroyed the stores and munitions. But the work of destruction was followed by a sudden attack of the infuriated multitude, and the soldiers were pursued out of the town, leaving many of their comrades dead in the streets. The road to Boston ran through great forests, in which lurked hunters armed with the deadly rifle, and the British ranks were much thinned before they reached **Lexington.** At this village the retreating troops received reinforcements, and, turning upon their pursuers, dispersed them with loss. This expedition cost Gage 250 men in killed and wounded, and greatly encouraged the colonists. A month afterwards a second Congress assembled at Philadelphia, and appointed as their commander-in-chief **George Washington,** a Virginian gentleman, then about forty-three years of age. Meanwhile, Gage had allowed himself to be shut up in Boston by 20,000 raw colonial troops, who entrenched themselves on Breed's Hill, an eminence commanding the town. General Howe, arriving from England with reinforcements, took the chief command, and proceeded to assault the Americans behind their entrenchments. The battle, called **Bunker's Hill,** from a neighbouring height, ended in the defeat of the colonists; but the victory cost the British 1,000 men, and taught them to respect the valour of their opponents. About the same time the Americans, under Montgomery and Arnold, invaded Canada, in the hope of persuading its people to join them. Montreal fell into their hands, but an attack upon Quebec failed; Montgomery was slain in the assault, and the invaders, after continuing the siege through the winter, were driven out of the province.

April 19, **1775** A.D.

June 17, **1775** A.D.

Meanwhile, in the summer of 1775, Congress made one last effort to conciliate the Home Government by sending a petition known as 'the Olive Branch.' To this appeal

the only answer given was a large increase of land and sea forces, and a declaration in Parliament to take resolute measures against the conspirators and insurgents in America.

Early in the following year, the British troops, compelled to evacuate Boston, sailed to Halifax, and thus enabled Washington to take New York. Then the Congress at Philadelphia, consisting of delegates from all the thirteen States, issued their famous **Declaration of Independence.** In August, Howe left Halifax, and effected a landing on Long Island, where he was joined by the fleet of his brother, Admiral Lord Howe. The united forces defeated Washington at **Brooklyn** with great loss, and recaptured New York. Matters were going on badly with the Americans, when their leader revived their sinking courage by a sudden attack upon the garrison of Trenton, and capturing nearly 1,000 Hessian troops. This affair closed the campaign.

July 4, **1776** A.D.

The year 1777 opened with another surprise of the Americans upon the garrison of Princeton; but Washington's success was cut short by a defeat at **Brandywine,** which enabled the British to occupy Philadelphia. This victory raised hopes in England that the subjection of the colonies was not far distant, but a serious disaster befell the English arms, and changed hopes to fears. General Burgoyne, marching from Canada with 10,000 men to co-operate with a force from New York, was so beset in the woods by the Americans, that he could not even reach Albany. Disappointed in not meeting with the expedition from New York, and harassed by the enemy, he retreated to **Saratoga,** where he was soon surrounded. For five days the gallant general resisted the pangs of hunger and the overwhelming masses of his foes, in the hope that relief would come. At length he was compelled to surrender, with all his brass cannon, muskets, and stores. His force, numbering then about 6,000 men, were retained as prisoners till the close of the war, as Congress denied the right of General Gates sending them home on condition they would not again serve against the colonists.

Oct. 17, **1777** A.D.

The surrender of Burgoyne led France to join the Americans. From the beginning of the conflict, the French sent men, money, and munitions of war, to the insurgent States; and among the volunteers the name of the young and brave Marquis de la Fayette was the most distinguished. The entrance of France into the quarrel filled the British ministry with anxiety. Lord North saw that Chatham was the only man able to guide the country through the perils which threatened it, and he strongly urged the king to place the veteran statesman at the head of the Government; but George disliked the earl for his independence, and turned a deaf ear to the advice of his minister. In Parliament many members, alarmed at the serious turn of affairs, implored the Government to acknowledge the independence of the colonies rather than engage in a war with France. To oppose a motion in favour of such a peace, the venerable Chatham left a sick-bed to appear in Parliament. Though old, frail, and sick, he spoke with all his wonted fire and eloquence against the dismemberment of the empire; and when he rose again to renew his attack upon the proposal, he fell in a fit upon the floor of the House of Lords. A month later, the veteran statesman and foremost Englishman of the day expired, in his seventieth year. Meanwhile, Lord North had repealed the duty on tea, and had sent commissioners to America to treat with the colonists, but the concession came too late—independence only would satisfy them now. The campaign this year was not distinguished by any great operations. Howe was succeeded in the chief command by Sir Henry Clinton, who evacuated Philadelphia to fall back upon New York. In the latter part of the year, troops sent to Georgia quickly reduced that province. Nearer home, an engagement took place between the English and French fleets off Ushant, but, from some misunderstanding between the English commanders, the battle was indecisive, and caused a great outcry in the country.

1778 A.D.

Our difficulties were increased in the next year by the entrance of Spain into the quarrel. Her part in the war

chiefly consisted of an unsuccessful attempt to recover Gibraltar, which, under the able defence of General Elliot, endured a siege of three years (1779–1782). In America, there were marches, skirmishes, sieges, and burnings; but no event of importance occurred.

The sixth campaign was marked in America by the capture of Charleston by Clinton, and the desertion of the American general Arnold, who offered to the British the fortress of West Point on the river Hudson. Major André, an English officer who arranged the affair, was captured, tried by court-martial and hanged as a spy. In Europe many troubles threatened England. At home, the Gordon riots distracted the Government, and abroad the northern powers took up a menacing attitude. Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland endeavoured to make a profitable trade between the belligerents, and formed an **armed neutrality**, to maintain by force of arms, if necessary, the principle that 'free ships make free goods.' Towards the close of the year Holland became so hostile that England declared war against her.

1780 A.D.

The following year witnessed a disaster to our arms in America, which virtually terminated the war. Lord Cornwallis, who had almost reduced the Carolinas, was compelled to withdraw his forces to Yorktown, in Virginia. While waiting there for reinforcements from New York, a French fleet entered the Chesapeake, and Cornwallis, finding himself surrounded and in danger of starvation, surrendered his force of 7,000 men to Washington and De Grasse. This misfortune to the British arms decided the war; and, though the Government continued the struggle for another year, scarcely any military operations took place in America. On sea, indeed, the English fleets maintained their supremacy. Admiral Parker engaged a Dutch fleet near the Doggerbank (1789), and Rodney severely defeated the French in the West Indies, off Guadaloupe (1782). The island of Minorca, however, capitulated to a combined French and Spanish force, but all their efforts to retake Gibraltar failed. Its

Oct. 19 **1781** A.D.

gallant defender was rewarded for his services with the title of Lord Heathfield.

Towards the close of the year, negotiations for peace were entered upon with the Americans, and in the following January the **Treaty of Versailles** was concluded by the contending countries, excepting Holland, which made its own terms a few months later. By this treaty England acknowledged the independence of the United States, with the right of fishing on the coast of Newfoundland. To France we restored St. Lucia and Tobago, in the West Indies, and Chandanagore and Pondicherry in the East, and received in return Dominica, Grenada, and four other islands; at the same time, we were to give up our claim for the dismantling of Dunkirk. To Spain, we ceded Minorca and the Floridas, and in return, our right to cut logwood in Honduras was guaranteed. To Holland we returned all our conquests excepting Negapatam. The expense of this war added 100,000,000*l.* to the National Debt.

Jan. 20, **1783** A.D.

War of the French Revolution. Treaty of Amiens.

The ten years' peace which followed the struggle with the American colonies was broken by the terrible outbreak of the French Revolution. Among the various causes of this great event, three stand very conspicuous: (1) the oppression of the lower orders by a proud and insolent nobility; (2) the infidel writings of such men as Voltaire and Rousseau; (3) the reckless extravagance of the French court necessitating increased taxation. The general discontent of the French people was greatly augmented by the spread of republican principles, which followed the return of the soldiers who had taken part in the war of American independence. The storm, which had long been gathering, at length burst in 1789.

The *States General*, consisting of the general assembly of the three estates of *nobles*, *clergy*, and *commons*, had scarcely met at Versailles, when the last estate took the title of **National Assembly**, and compelled the other two

orders to sit with it in one chamber. This change in the constitution was soon followed by revolutionary violence. A month later the Bastile, or state prison in Paris, was stormed and destroyed by the people; the citizens of the capital were formed into the National Guard; the tricolour flag—the symbol of unity, fraternity, and equality—was adopted as the national standard; and the lower orders became masters of France. In one night, the National Assembly abolished all the rights and privileges of the aristocracy. The clergy were disposed of in the same manner, and the lands of the Church seized as national property. These changes were accompanied with violent excesses throughout France, and very many of the nobility, seeing greater dangers in store, left the country. The king, Louis XVI., remained quietly at his post till June 1791, when, terrified by the excesses of the ultra-revolutionists, or *Jacobins*, he attempted to escape out of France, but was captured and replaced at the head of the Government. Leopold, Emperor of Germany, brother of **Marie Antoinette**, the beautiful queen of Louis, formed a treaty with Prussia to interfere in the affairs of France, and early in 1792, their combined armies, attended by many of the emigrant nobles, crossed the frontier, and put to flight the French forces. This invasion aroused the Parisians to fury. Kings, they said, were conspiring against their liberties, and no king should rule at Paris. Twice the mob stormed the Tuileries; and when Louis sought refuge in the Assembly from the fury of the rabble, he was deposed and sent with his family to the prison of the Temple. A republic was then declared, and the reins of government fell into the hands of such men as Danton, Marat, Desmoulins, and Robespierre. No mercy was shown to any suspected of disaffection to the revolution; 5,000 persons were slaughtered in the prisons of Paris during the month of September, and the horrid guillotine, lately invented, was used to dispatch more easily and quickly the unhappy victims of a merciless republic. All Europe stood aghast at the frenzy of France; and when the National Convention issued its decrees, promising help to all nations who desired to enjoy the liberty

of Paris, self-defence compelled the chief Powers to take up arms against a people who, intoxicated with blood, aimed to turn the world upside down. The execution of Louis XVI. and his beautiful wife, Marie Antoinette, caused the dismissal of the French ambassador from London, and England, Holland, and Spain united with Austria and Prussia to stem the tide of anarchy and bloodshed which, issuing from France, threatened to overwhelm the whole of Europe. The alliance of the European Powers seemed only to increase the fury of the French. The Christian religion was abolished; the churches closed; a goddess of Reason set up in Notre Dame; and a reign of terror established, under which the knife of the guillotine was incessantly at work. Retribution, however, overtook the agents of impiety and murder, and all the revolutionary leaders perished in turn on the scaffold or by other violence. It is estimated that during the first two years of the revolution nearly a million human victims were sacrificed in France.

Feb. **1793** A.D.

In 1793, an English army under the Duke of York was sent to co-operate with the Austrians in Belgium, but it met with little success. In the south of France, Toulon proclaimed for the royalists, and surrendered to a British fleet under Lord Hood. The town was attacked by 40,000 republicans, among whom was a young artillery officer, **Napoleon Bonaparte**, a native of Corsica, whose military genius first displayed itself on that occasion. Hood was compelled to leave Toulon, taking with him 15,000 refugees.

The year 1794 saw England unsuccessful on land, but triumphant at sea. The allies were driven out of Flanders, and forced to make a disastrous retreat into Hanover, leaving the French masters of Holland. The English army returned home in the following spring. On the other hand, Lord Hood took Corsica, where Horatio Nelson distinguished himself; and Admiral Howe defeated the Brest fleet off Ushant, capturing twelve ships of the line.

In 1795, Prussia and Spain withdrew from the alliance

against France, and Holland threw in her fortunes with the French republic. England declared war against the latter country, and captured the Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope, and other possessions in the East and West Indies. A new government, called the *Directory*, was set up in France, but the change so displeased the mob of Paris, that the Directory was only saved by Bonaparte, who scattered the insurgent rabble in front of the Tuileries by a volley of grape-shot.

The following year was distinguished by Napoleon's victorious campaign in Northern Italy, where the power of Austria and her allies was completely broken. Spain, too, joined France and declared war against England. An effort on the part of the English Government to make peace failed through the high demands of the Directory. Schemes were then set on foot for the invasion of Britain. It was proposed to unite the fleets of Holland, France, and Spain, and sweep the English off the seas. The French, in their impetuosity, made a fruitless attempt to invade Ireland and Wales; but a storm scattered the fleet destined for Ireland, and some old women, dressed up in red cloaks, frightened the French, who had landed in Pembrokeshire, into a surrender.

The year 1797 opened in England with gloomy forebodings, which the brilliant victory of Admiral Jervis and Commodore Nelson over the Spanish fleet off **Cape St. Vincent** only partially dispelled. (Feb. 14.) The French were everywhere successful, and not a single European Power remained to withstand their ambition except England, which unfortunately was unable to present a strong and united front against the foe. Taxation was heavy and grievous, and the fear of invasion caused such a run upon the Bank of England, that cash payments were stopped. Republicanism, too, found many sympathisers amongst an over-taxed and hungry people, and Ireland especially was a source of great disquietude to the Government. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, a strict watch was kept upon all suspected persons, and the laws enforced with vigour and rigour. Disaffection spread to

the navy, upon which the safety of the country depended. The joy of the victory of St. Vincent had scarcely passed away, when a serious mutiny broke out in the Channel fleet at Spithead, and afterwards in the North fleet at the Nore. The mutineers complained of their low pay, unequal share of prize-money, and severity of discipline. They moored the ships across the Thames to prevent traffic with the capital until their grievances were redressed, and at one time they talked of taking the fleet over to France. The mutiny was fortunately quelled, but the ringleaders, among whom was an intelligent sailor named Parker, suffered death. The disgrace of the mutiny was soon wiped out by Admiral Duncan's victory over the Dutch fleet off **Camperdown.** (Oct. 11.)

In 1798, Napoleon sailed from Toulon with a great fleet and army, on his celebrated expedition to Egypt, with a view, as he afterwards said, 'to conquer the East, and take Europe in the rear.' Taking Malta on the way, he disembarked at Alexandria, and defeated the famous Mameluke cavalry at the battle of the Pyramids. Admiral Nelson, who was sent with a fleet in pursuit, at length found the French moored in Aboukir Bay. The **Battle of the Nile** continued through the night, and ended in the almost total destruction of the French fleet. Out of seventeen ships, only four escaped, and more than 5,000 men perished, including the French admiral, whose flag-ship, the 'Orient,' blew up in the midst of the fight. The English loss was under 1,000. For this brilliant victory, Nelson received a peerage and a handsome pension. The consequences to the French army were serious, since they were now prisoners amid the sands of Egypt. Several of the Powers of Europe, too, encouraged by the battle of the Nile, formed a second coalition against France. In this year, a formidable rebellion occurred in Ireland, which will be related by itself.

Aug. 1, **1798** A.D.

Early in 1799, Napoleon led his troops into Syria, took Gaza and Jaffa, but was foiled in his attempt upon **Acre,** chiefly by the bravery of Sir Sidney Smith and some British seamen. Returning to Egypt, alarming news from

France caused him to leave his army and hurry home The Russians had defeated the French in Italy, and the Directory, in consequence, had fallen into contempt. Napoleon's return changed the aspect of affairs. Through his influence the Directory was abolished, and three consuls established instead, of which he was first. A military expedition to Holland under the Duke of York failed, but Nelson helped to take Naples.

The next year was a successful one for France. Napoleon, having crossed the Alps, reconquered Italy by the great victory of Marengo. (June 14, 1800.) Later on, the victory of Hohenlinden, in Bavaria, by another French general, led Austria to make peace. The only English success was the acquisition of **Malta**. But a new danger threatened England by the revival of the armed neutrality of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark.

The year 1801, however, was favourable to English arms. A British army under General Abercromby landed in Egypt, and defeated the French at Alexandria, but the victors lost their brave commander. About the same time, Admiral Nelson sailed to the Baltic, destroyed the Danish fleet, bombarded **Copenhagen**, and forced the Danes to submit to an armistice. The northern league, thus crippled by Nelson's victory, was soon broken up by the assassination of the Czar Paul, whose successor adopted a different policy towards Britain.

Towards the close of the year, negotiations for peace were carried on, which ended in the **Treaty of Amiens**. England agreed to restore all her colonial conquests, except Ceylon and Trinidad; to give up Malta to the Knights of St. John, and Egypt to Turkey. France, however, retained Belgium, the left bank of the Rhine, Savoy, Geneva, and Nice, and agreed to withdraw from the Roman and Neapolitan territories, and to guarantee the integrity of Portugal. The peace of Amiens was evidently nothing but a hollow truce to enable Napoleon to mature his plans.

Mar. 25, **1802** A.D.

The Irish Rebellion. Union of England and Ireland.

On the accession of George III., the Irish Roman Catholics began to give signs of a movement which had for its object the Reform of their Parliament and the removal of oppressive laws. An organisation of 'Whiteboys,' so called from their dress, soon gave proof, by deeds of violence, that the Romanists would not tamely submit to be kept down any longer as an inferior race. During the war with the American colonies, they became bolder in their demands, and embodied themselves as volunteers to ensure the success of their hopes. While this movement was gathering strength in Ireland, the French Revolution broke out, and filled the Irish with the wildest enthusiasm. The Protestants of the north, and the Romanists of the west and south, forgot their religious differences, and banded themselves together in a society called the 'United Irishmen,' to separate Ireland from Great Britain, and establish an Irish republic. (1791.) The Government, alarmed at such a union, granted certain privileges to the Roman Catholics, and forbade the meetings of the new society. But there was already an active correspondence with the French republic; secret societies spread throughout the island, and everything was prepared for a rising as soon as the French should cross the sea. In 1796, a formidable expedition under Hoche set out from Brest, but it was scattered by a storm. A second attempt in the following year on the part of the Dutch was foiled by Duncan's victory at Camperdown.

The Irish, disappointed at not receiving foreign aid, resolved to trust to themselves, and fixed a day in the month of May to raise the flag of revolt. But the Government, receiving information of the plot, seized the leaders, among whom were Lord Edward Fitzgerald, the brother of the Duke of Leinster, and Robert Emmett. Fitzgerald was mortally wounded in the scuffle that attended his arrest. A rising then took place in several parts of the country, but it was only serious in the county of Wexford, where for two months it

1798 A.D.

raged cruelly and fiercely. The rebels entrenched themselves on **Vinegar Hill,** near Enniscorthy. There they were attacked by General Lake at the head of a large force, and, after maintaining their ground for an hour and a half, broke and fled in all directions.

During the rebellion, great atrocities were committed on both sides. The rebels shut up about 200 prisoners, chiefly Protestants, during an attack upon New Ross, and set fire to the house and destroyed them all. In the camp on Vinegar Hill, Protestant prisoners from time to time underwent mock trial, and were butchered till the roll numbered about 400 victims. On the day before the battle of Vinegar Hill, ninety-seven prisoners were piked and thrown into the River Slaney. On the other hand, the ferocity of the rebels was equalled by the cruelty of the soldiers. Little mercy was shown to an insurgent. Floggings, half-hangings, and other tortures, more than avenged the atrocities of the rebel camp.

Two months after the rebellion was over, a French force of 900 men, under Humbert, landed in Killala Bay, in Mayo. Pushing into the interior, he defeated General Lake at Castlebar, but in a few days he was surrounded near Longford and compelled to surrender.

The Irish rebellion showed the necessity of a closer connection between England and Ireland, and it was resolved to unite the Parliaments of the two countries, as had been done in the case of Scotland in Anne's reign. The **Union** was unpopular in Ireland, but, after much debate, bribery, and pressure, a Bill to that effect was passed. Henceforth, Ireland was to be represented in the Imperial Parliament by four lords spiritual, twenty-eight lords temporal, and one hundred commoners; the Churches of the two countries were to be united in one Protestant Episcopal Church; the two peoples were to enjoy the same trading privileges; and the laws remain as they were, unless changed by the Imperial Parliament. The cross of St. Patrick was then combined with those of St. George and St. Andrew, and the 'Union Jack' henceforth became the national flag of

Jan. 1, **1801** A.D.

the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. At the same time, the English sovereign dropped the title and arms of 'King of France.'

William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, had been at the head of the ministry for some time. Believing that the Union would prove a greater blessing to Ireland if the penal statutes against Romanists were abolished, he strongly advised the king to consent to such a measure. The king, however, would not agree to this, and Pitt consequently resigned his office.

Ireland was still discontented and rebellious, in spite of the Union. In 1803, an insurrection broke out in the streets of Dublin, but it was suppressed in a single night. Robert Emmett, for his share in this attempt, suffered death. Throughout the remainder of the reign, the Irish people continued quiet, and began to reap, by increased trade and general prosperity, the benefits of the Act of Union.

Second War with France. Battle of Trafalgar.

Two months after the Treaty of Amiens, Napoleon was elected consul for life. His ambitious schemes becoming manifest, the British Government hesitated to restore Malta. Napoleon complained of the delay, and of the countenance given by England to French emigrants, and backed his remonstrances with great naval preparations. When his plans were ready, he declared war, and meanly seized about 10,000 English, who were then travelling in France, and kept most of them prisoners till the peace. (May 1803.) His troops immediately occupied Hanover, Bremen, and Hamburg, whilst the English fleets scoured the seas and recaptured the colonial possessions of the enemy. But Napoleon's grand scheme was the invasion of England, and for this purpose he formed an immense camp at Boulogne, and collected a large flotilla of boats for the transport of his armies. He spent the year 1804, during which he was proclaimed Emperor of the French, in preparations for the daring undertaking. His plan was

to allure the English fleet from the Channel, and then, with the united navies of France and Spain, bear down all opposition.

In England, every precaution was taken to defeat the invasion. Pitt resumed the post of Prime Minister; 300,000 volunteers were enrolled, and Nelson was despatched with a formidable fleet to watch and harass the enemy. By Pitt's skilful diplomacy, Russia, Austria, and Sweden allied themselves against France. The beginning of 1805 found Napoleon's plans ripe for execution. The Toulon fleet, under Villeneuve, escaped the vigilance of Nelson, effected a junction with the Spanish navy off Cadiz, and sailed for the West Indies, to allure the English from Europe. Off to the West went Nelson in hot pursuit, but no enemy could be seen. Villeneuve had returned to Europe, having succeeded in drawing his great adversary far out of the way, and the invasion seemed sure of success. To the west of Cape Finisterre, however, the French Admiral fell in with Sir Robert Calder, who had been sent to watch for him. (July 22, 1805.) Calder immediately dashed at the combined fleets with his insignificant force, took two Spanish ships, and so crippled the enemy, that Villeneuve, instead of proceeding up the Channel to secure the safe passage of the troops to Britain, withdrew to Ferrol for repairs, and thence to Cadiz. This gave Nelson time to return, and defeated Napoleon's scheme.

In October, Nelson, with twenty-seven sail of the line, encountered the combined fleets of France and Spain, numbering thirty-three ships, off Cape **Trafalgar**. Hoisting the thrilling signal, '*England expects every man will do his duty*,' the English admiral bore down upon the enemy in two lines, having his own flag-ship, the 'Victory,' in the van. In the terrible struggle that followed, his vessel became entangled in the rigging of the French ship 'Redoubtable.' Marksmen placed aloft in the latter ship raked the 'Victory's' deck with musket-shot, and a bullet struck Nelson on the left shoulder and lodged in his spine. Before he died, the shouts of victory fell on the brave seaman's ears, and he

Oct. 21, **1805** A.D.

faltered out in triumph, 'Now I am satisfied; thank God, I have done my duty.' The victory indeed was most glorious and complete. The enemy lost nineteen ships and 20,000 prisoners. The French navy was destroyed, and British supremacy at sea remained without a rival. Nelson was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral with princely honours, amid the tears of the whole nation.

In the meanwhile, Napoleon marched his 'Grand Army' of invasion against Austria, forced the surrender of 30,000 Austrians under Mack at Ulm (October 20), entered Vienna, and defeated the Austrians and Russians at Austerlitz, in Moravia. (December 2, 1805.)

The successes of the French on land thoroughly broke the spirit of Pitt. Disappointed and worn out by care and toil, the great statesman died in January 1806, at the early age of forty-six. A few months after, he was followed to the grave by his great rival Fox.

During this year, Napoleon's tide of success continued to flow. He made his brother Joseph King of Naples; another brother, Louis, King of Holland; united the lesser States of Germany into a Confederation of the Rhine, under his protectorship; and forced Francis of Austria to renounce the title of Emperor of Germany. Prussia, daring to take offence, was humbled in one day by the battle of Jena. England and Russia were the only two countries of Europe that retained their independence. Unable to reach with his armies the people whom he contemptuously called 'a nation of shopkeepers,' Napoleon attempted to destroy English commerce by issuing the famous **Berlin Decrees,** declaring the British Islands to be in a state of blockade, and commanding the ports of Europe to be closed against British vessels. England retaliated, forbidding any neutral Power to trade with France or her allies.

In 1807, the French emperor marched against Russia. The indecisive battle of Eylau was followed by the decisive victory of Friedland, and the Russian emperor, Alexander I., glad to make terms with the conqueror, concluded the Treaty of Tilsit. (July 7.) Half of the Prussian dominions were then formed into the kingdom of Westphalia, and given to

Jerome, another brother of Napoleon. The British Government, seeing the whole of Europe at the feet of its enemy, and fearing a union of the northern navies, sent a powerful armament to demand the surrender of the Danish fleet until the close of the war. Denmark, being a neutral State, refused, but the English admiral forced compliance by bombarding Copenhagen.

The ambitious Frenchman then turned his mind to the conquest of the Spanish peninsula. He first made a treaty with Spain to divide Portugal, and an army under Junot entered Lisbon; but in the following year he displaced the Spanish king, and transferred his brother Joseph from Naples to Madrid. This act of aggression gave rise to the Peninsular war.

The Peninsular War.

The Spaniards rose in arms, and in a fortnight drove Joseph out of Madrid. In answer to their appeal for help, Sir Arthur Wellesley with 10,000 British troops landed at Mondego Bay, in Portugal, in August, and defeated the French at **Roliça**, and four days after gained another victory over Junot at Vimiera. As Sir Arthur was about to follow up his advantage, he was superseded by Sir Henry Burrard, who almost immediately gave way to Sir Henry Dalrymple. The latter made a shameful treaty with the enemy, called the **Convention of Cintra**, by which they were allowed to leave Portugal with all their arms and stores. Dalrymple's foolish leniency cost him his command, which was then given to Sir John Moore. The new general, deceived by Spanish promises of support, marched into Spain as far as Salamanca, but finding Madrid in the hands of the French, and learning that a large army under Soult was threatening his rear, he returned towards the coast of Galicia, hotly pursued by the enemy. At **Corunna** he turned at bay, and beat back the legions of France; but he lost his life in the battle. The

1808 A.D.

Jan. 16, **1809** A.D.

troops then embarked in some transports, and left the French in possession of the town.

The command of the British army again devolved upon Sir Arthur Wellesley. With 25,000 men he marched into Spain, and encountered king Joseph and Marshals Victor and Jourdan at **Talavera**, where the French lost nearly 10,000 men. For this victory he was made Viscount Wellington. The French, however, were too strong in his front, and he was compelled to retire to the frontiers of Portugal. Austria in the meantime had risen against France, but at Wagram her power was again shattered, and Napoleon dictated his own terms of peace. While the French were advancing against Austria, a British expedition, consisting of 40,000 men, was sent under the Earl of Chatham, elder brother of Pitt, to seize Antwerp, and thus create a diversion in favour of our ally. Chatham, a man unequal to the occasion, wasted his time before Flushing, while the enemy made Antwerp impregnable. He then withdrew to the marshy island of Walcheren, at the mouth of the Scheldt, where pestilence made sad havoc among the troops, and, ere the recall of the expedition in December, one-half of the force was swept off by disease.

July 23, **1809**, A.D.

The beginning of the year 1810 saw Napoleon the master of the continent of Europe. To perpetuate his dynasty, he divorced his wife Josephine and married Maria Louisa, daughter of Francis II. of Austria. His supremacy on the Continent enabled him to fill Spain with troops. Massena with 80,000 veterans advanced into Portugal, and forced Wellington to withdraw behind the 'lines' of Torres Vedras, near Lisbon; but, before entering these entrenchments, he inflicted a crushing defeat upon the French on the heights of **Busaco**.

1810 A.D.

In the spring of 1811, the British army issued from Torres Vedras, and won victory after victory in splendid succession. General Graham defeated a superior French force under Victor at **Barossa**, near Cadiz, in March. Two months later, Wellington routed Massena at **Fuentes d'Onoro**,

and a few days after, General Beresford, while besieging the fortress of Badajoz, defeated Soult at **Albuera.** This last battle was the most bloody in the whole war. Though the struggle lasted only four hours, nearly 16,000 men were slain; the loss on both sides being about equal. Beresford, however, was obliged to relinquish the siege. In the East, Batavia, the capital of the Dutch colonies in Java, surrendered to a British force. **1811** A.D.

The fifth campaign opened with the capture of the two border fortresses of **Ciudad Rodrigo** and **Badajoz**, but these important places cost thousands of lives. At Badajoz alone the British army lost 5,000 men in killed and wounded. Holding these fortresses as a base, Wellington marched forward into Spain, and utterly routed Marmont at **Salamanca.** The victorious army entered Madrid in the following month, amid the rejoicings of the people, but the advance of the French in overwhelming numbers compelled the victor to fall back upon Ciudad Rodrigo. July 22, **1812** A.D.

Meanwhile, Napoleon, uniting the forces of his empire with those of Austria and Germany, till his armament numbered about half a million of men, had set out to chastise Russia for its opposition to his Berlin Decrees. Defeating the Russians at Smolensk and at Borodino, he reached Moscow. (September 15, 1812.) But Alexander refused to treat, and in a few days the flames of the city, fired by the Russians, drove the invader back. Pursued by the Cossacks, and exposed to hunger and the intense cold of a Russian winter, only a few of the invading army lived to reach the Niemen. This disastrous retreat, which cost Napoleon about 400,000 men, shook the French empire, and led to the Confederation which, in the next year, effected his overthrow.

England's difficulties were increased this year by a war with the United States of America, which will be related separately.

In 1813, while Germany, aided by Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, was rising to shake off the French yoke, Wellington for the last time advanced into Spain. At **Vittoria**

he thoroughly scattered the French under King Joseph and Marshal Jourdan, and captured all their artillery, stores, and army chest. The victor pushed on, defeated Soult in the **Pyrenees**, and, entering France, defeated him again at the Nivelle. In the meantime, the strong fortresses of **St. Sebastian** and Pampeluna had fallen into the hands of the English.

June 21, **1813** A.D.

Early next year Soult endeavoured to stop the English advance, but he was overthrown at **Orthes.** (February 27.) Two months later he made another stand at **Toulouse**, but only to receive a most disastrous defeat. Ten days earlier, Napoleon, who had been routed at Leipsic in October of the previous year, was followed to Paris by an immense host of Russians, Prussians, Swedes, and Germans, and compelled to abdicate the throne of France. The Bourbon dynasty was restored to the French throne; the first treaty of Paris was signed in May; Napoleon was sent to the island of Elba; and a General Congress was appointed to meet at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe.

April 10, **1814** A.D.

Wellington, for his victorious career in the Peninsula, was made a duke, received the thanks of Parliament, and a grant of 500,000*l.*

War with the United States of America (1812–14).

The immediate cause of the quarrel with the United States was the claim of England to search American vessels for English seamen. But the Americans had for some time been very discontented with the rigorous manner in which the British Government had carried on the blockade of the ports of France and her allies in retaliation for the Berlin Decrees. The British right of search, therefore, was strongly resisted, and ended in a declaration of war by America. (June 18, 1812.)

An attempt to invade Canada the same year failed through the loyalty of the colonists. At sea, however, the Americans, by the employment of heavily-armed cruisers, were at first successful, but England maintained her naval

supremacy, in the following summer, by the famous 'ocean duel' between the 'Shannon' and the American 'Chesapeake.' In an engagement off Boston Harbour, the British flag waved over the 'Chesapeake,' after a combat of only fifteen minutes. At this time the Americans had captured three British frigates and a number of brigs and sloops of war, while they had also seized hundreds of British merchantmen. In 1813, the Americans again invaded Canada and captured York, now Toronto. They also captured the entire British fleets on the Lakes Erie and Champlain. The battle of Chippewa was bravely fought and resulted in a drawn battle. A British fleet, having some of Wellington's veterans on board, came into Chesapeake Bay, and, the troops landing, marched on Washington City, which was abandoned by the inhabitants. The invaders burned the Capitol, the Congressional Library, the President's house, the Navy-yard, and many public buildings (August 15, 1814). An attack on Fort McHenry, the defence of Baltimore, was repulsed, while the land force sent to coöperate fell back to their fleet after losing their commander, Gen. Ross. An invasion of Louisiana resulted in the defeat of the British army, at New Orleans, with a loss of 2,600 men (January 8, 1815). The **Treaty of Ghent** (December, 1814) closed the war without deciding the 'right of search' question, which, in truth, was not mentioned, but the 'right' has not been exercised since.

Napoleon's Escape from Elba. Battle of Waterloo.

While the Congress of Vienna was busy settling the affairs of the Continent, news came that Napoleon had escaped from Elba, and was in Paris at the head of his veterans. The little Corsican landed on the coast of Provence, March 1, and was received everywhere with the wildest enthusiasm. Soldiers, officers, and marshals rallied round him, and in twenty days he was again emperor at the Tuileries. The Powers of Europe immediately combined to crush the disturber of the peace of the world. The British Parliament voted immense sums of money, and sent Wellington with an army

to Belgium, while the Prussians under Blucher were hastening to the Rhine, and the other Powers marshalling their legions. Napoleon's safety lay in immediate action, and his plan was clear. He hurried to the northern frontier to prevent the union of Wellington and Blucher, and thus crush them in detail. Sending Marshal Ney to attack the advanced British position at Quatre Bras, he himself with his main force fell upon the Prussians at Ligny, defeated them, and sent Grouchy in pursuit with 35,000 men, while he himself turned to meet Wellington. Ney's attack at **Quatre Bras**, on the same day as the battle of Ligny, was gallantly repulsed; but the defeat of the Prussians necessitated a retreat of the British forces to the village of Waterloo. Napoleon, however, had succeeded so far in his plans; he had separated his two opponents, overthrown one, and now advanced to Waterloo to chastise the other.

On June 17, Wellington took up his position on the ridge of *Mont St. Jean*, in front of Waterloo. His army numbered about 72,000 men, of whom only 24,000 were British, and of these only about 15,000 were Peninsular veterans. The rest were Hanoverians, Dutch, and Belgians, many of whom were arrant cowards. Napoleon, with about 80,000 men, and artillery double that of his adversary, took up a position on the opposite ridge of *La Belle Alliance*. In a hollow between the two ridges lay the farmhouses of Hougoumont and La Haye Sainte, round which the battle raged most fiercely. On Sunday morning, June 18, the soldiers rose from their bivouacs in the midst of a drizzling rain, which had fallen continuously throughout the night; and soon after ten o'clock the conflict began by a furious attack of the French on Hougoumont. Napoleon's tactics were to break the ranks of the allied forces by a storm of shot and shell, and then to hurl against them his splendid cavalry. Wellington's object was to maintain his ground until the Prussians should arrive; and his iron will baffled all the efforts of his adversary to dislodge him. Again and again, grape, canister, and cannon-balls tore

June 18, **1815** A.D.

through the allied lines, and before the smoke had time to clear away, steel-clad cuirassiers, lancers, and hussars rushed down upon them. But the British infantry, drawn up in solid squares, received their onset at the point of the bayonet, and hurled them back, with many an empty saddle. Thus the struggle continued throughout the day, with terrible loss on both sides.

Shortly after four in the afternoon, the sound of cannon boomed in the east, and Napoleon soon discovered that Blucher had outmarched Grouchy, and was hurrying to the battle-field. Knowing that there was not a moment to lose, he ordered Ney to lead the reserves, consisting of the Old Guard of France, the veterans of Austerlitz, Jena, and Wagram, and to make a final charge. The British Guards received the attack with a withering fire of musketry, and with a cheer rushed down the slope upon the wavering foe. A short hand-to-hand fight followed, and the French guards reeled back, broke, and fled, and Waterloo was won. Napoleon, seeing the flower of his army a disordered mass, exclaimed, '*Sauve qui peut!*' and rode off the field. The Prussians, who had entered the battle just as the French Guards were reeling before the British infantry, took up the pursuit, and throughout that night many a soldier of France experienced the unsparing vengeance of the vanquished at Jena and Ligny. The French loss in the battle and pursuit amounted to about 40,000 men, while the allies lost about 15,000. Napoleon, having narrowly escaped capture in the pursuit, reached Paris, abdicated in favour of his son, and fled to Rochefort, intending to embark for America. But Louis XVIII. re-entered Paris on July 8, and a week later the fallen emperor surrendered himself on the quarter-deck of the 'Bellerophon,' in the roads of Aix, to the mercy of Britain. The allies resolved to send him where he could no longer disturb the peace of Europe. He was, therefore, conveyed to the island of St. Helena, where he died on May 5, 1821. In 1840, his remains were removed to France, and buried in the chapel of the Invalides, Paris.

By the **second Treaty of Paris**, which followed the

battle of Waterloo, it was agreed to reduce France to her limits of 1790; to make her pay a war indemnity of 28,000,000*l.*, and to maintain a large allied army in her frontier fortresses for five years. In the same year, **the Congress of Vienna** completed the task of regulating the affairs of Europe.

These long wars with France left England burdened with an additional debt of 630,000,000*l.*, making the total amount of the National Debt 868,000,000*l.* But a great deal of this money was spent in helping the various nationalities of Europe to fight their own battles. There was scarcely a single continental Power unaided by British gold. Many times during the war the English people experienced much distress, but the period immediately following the peace was far more trying. Trade was stagnant, wages were low, and bread dear—wheat rising to 100*s.* a quarter. Discontent accompanied poverty and misery, and furnished a splendid field for popular agitators. A cry for reform became general; political clubs started into existence; riotous assemblies were frequent in all the large towns; and treasonable publications were widely circulated. The Government repressed all seditious movements with a high hand; and at Manchester, in 1819, a political meeting was dispersed by the military. In this affair, long remembered as the 'Peterloo massacre,' several agitators lost their lives, and hundreds were wounded.

Affairs in India. Warren Hastings.

After the destruction of the French power in the Carnatic by the capture of Pondicherry, the affairs of the East India Company continued to prosper, in spite of many serious disputes with the native princes. Meer Cossim, the Nabob of Bengal, having quarrelled with the Company's officials, massacred all the English at Patna, and then marched with a large army to drive the British out of the province. Major Munro, at the head of a small force, met him at **Buxar**, and won a splendid victory. (1764.) But these

quarrels considerably interfered with trade, and were, consequently, displeasing to the directors of the Company in England. They therefore requested Lord Clive to return to Bengal to put matters on a peaceful footing. Soon after his arrival, he concluded a treaty at Allahabad with the Mogul, by which the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa were to be entirely under the rule of the Company, on condition of granting the Nabob a handsome pension. (1765.) Clive remained in India for eighteen months, working vigorously to establish English interests on a durable basis. He returned home a wealthy man, but he was exposed to much persecution from those whom his firm government had offended, and he died at last by his own hand. (1774.)

Though peace had been established in Bengal, the state of Madras was not so fortunate. A quarrel with Hyder Ali, the Rajah of Mysore, led to a war of two years' duration, which quite exhausted the Company's revenue. (1769). The proprietors in England raised such an outcry at the loss of their dividends, that the king's government passed an Act in 1773 for the better regulation of Indian affairs. It was resolved to establish at Calcutta a governor-general, with a Council, to be supreme over all the British possessions in India. **Warren Hastings**, who had entered the Company's service as a clerk in 1750, was the first to hold this important post. (1773.) The members of the Council of four, established to aid the governor-general, were appointed by the crown, and, unfortunately for British interests, three persons having personal and political prejudices against Hastings were placed on the Council. The supreme government was thus divided against itself, much to the injury of the Company's service.

Hastings entered upon office at a time when the treasury of the Company was almost empty. His first measures were directed to fill the exchequer, in accordance with orders from home, and in doing this his zeal overran his discretion, and exposed him to the attacks of his personal enemies. He assisted the Nabob of Oude to subjugate the

Rohillas, on condition of receiving a large grant of money and other advantages; but though the treasury was thus replenished, the method employed raised up many enemies to British rule. The warlike Mahrattas of Central India took offence at the attack upon the Rohillas, and united with Hyder Ali of Mysore to expel the English from Madras, just at a time when a war with France enabled a hostile French fleet to appear in the Indian seas. (1780.) The British empire in Southern India was saved from ruin only by the vigour of Hastings, who sent a force under Sir Eyre Coote from Bengal to the south, and at the same time used all his skill successfully to break up the native alliance. Hyder, worsted in every encounter with Coote, suddenly died, and was succeeded by his son, Tippoo Saib, under whom the war continued till 1784, when a peace was concluded advantageous to the English. During these wars, Hastings committed those acts of spoliation to fill his exhausted treasury which excited so much indignation against his government. He wrung a heavy tribute from the Rajah of Benares, who was under British protection; and meeting with some opposition on a renewal of the extortion, he deposed the rajah, and seized his treasury. He also connived at the plunder of the Begums or princesses of Oude. The excuse for these acts was, that money was wanted to carry on the war in the south, else India would have been lost.

Hastings returned to England, after holding the office of governor-general for thirteen years. He was impeached before the House of Lords on charges of cruelty and oppression to the natives of India. The trial commenced in 1788, and went on at intervals till 1795. Hastings was acquitted, but the trial left him almost penniless. He spent the rest of his life in retirement, on a pension of 4,000*l.* granted by the East India Company.

Lord Cornwallis was next sent out from England as governor-general, with strict injunctions to avoid war. (1786.) Three years afterwards, hostilities commenced with Tippoo Saib, who gladly made peace in 1792, and ceded to the English nearly half his dominions. During

the war of the French Revolution, France did her best to work mischief in India. Tippoo Saib, lending himself to French intrigues, again took up arms during the government of the Marquis of Wellesley. The war ended in the capture of Seringapatam, the death of Tippoo, and the addition of 20,000 square miles to the British empire. (1799). Colonel Wellesley (Duke of Wellington) took part in the war with Tippoo. Three years afterwards, the Mahrattas combined to make themselves masters of India. General Lake defeated one chief under the walls of Delhi, and liberated the Mogul; while General Wellesley routed another in the great battle of **Assaye.** (1803.) The Mahrattas submitted in 1805; and from this time the Mogul became a pensioner of the East India Company, while Delhi, Agra, and other provinces, both in the north and south, were added to our Indian empire. Peace remained undisturbed till 1814, when the Ghoorkas of Nepaul began to harass the northern borders. Their depredations, however, cost them a loss of territory 12,000 square miles in extent. In 1817, the Mahrattas and Pindarees, again becoming insolent and troublesome, were deprived of 60,000 square miles of territory.

Regency of the Prince of Wales. Death and Character of the King.

In the year 1810, the king's mind, long prone to insanity, gave way; and this terrible affliction was further aggravated by total blindness and partial deafness. The appointment of a regent was therefore necessary. This office naturally devolved upon the Prince of Wales, who, with the full prerogative of majesty, entered upon the regency February 5, 1811. The old king spent the remainder of his life in Windsor Castle, where he passed his time chiefly in roving from room to room, occasionally stopping to play a few bars of music on the pianos and harpsichords placed in his apartments. In all his affliction, his piety never forsook him; and it was most affecting to

hear him pray and talk of holy things under the impression that he was holding converse with angels.

The latter years of the reign brought many sorrows upon the royal family, in addition to the king's illness. The death of the Princess Charlotte, only child of the prince regent, threw the whole nation into mourning. (November 6, 1817.) In the previous year, she had married Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, afterwards King of the Belgians, and her early death in childbirth was everywhere lamented. A twelvemonth later, the good Queen Charlotte died. It is said that she had been in the habit of spending 5,000*l.* annually in works of benevolence, and especially in encouraging such female authors as Mrs. Trimmer and Hannah More. The mourning for the queen had scarcely been removed, when her son, the Duke of Kent, father of our present sovereign, died. In less than a week, his father, George III., expired at the age of eighty-two, having occupied the throne for sixty years. (Jan. 29, 1820). His reign was the longest in English history. He had fifteen children, of whom six were daughters. The four eldest sons were the Prince Regent, Frederick Duke of York, William Duke of Clarence, and Edward Duke of Kent.

George III. was by far the best of the Georges. He was a man of ordinary understanding, but endowed with more than an average share of tact and skill in managing men and things. He was actuated by a high sense of duty, and was firm, even to obstinacy, in the maintenance of what seemed right. His example as a sincere and humble Christian was a blessing to the country. His prayer-book and bible bear marks of his simple, earnest piety. In later years, he loved to retire from the turmoil of town-life to the quiet haunts of Windsor, where his affable manners and homely habits obtained for him the name of 'Farmer George.'

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1780, London was disturbed for many days by the **Gordon Riots.** Two years previously, certain penal laws against Roman Catholics had been repealed. This measure caused much excitement in the country, and in London a huge multitude, numbering 60,000 persons, marched to Palace Yard, under the guidance of Lord George Gordon, to petition Parliament to repeal its late act of leniency to Romanists. The rejection of the petition was the signal for the mob to break out into open violence. For five days a reign of terror kept the capital in uproar and confusion. Roman Catholic chapels were destroyed; Newgate and other prisons were stormed and set on fire; and pillage and destruction threatened the whole city. The mob even dared to withstand the military sent out to suppress the riots, and only withdrew after leaving more than 400 of their number dead or wounded in the streets. Twenty-one of the ringleaders were hanged; but Gordon received an acquittal, chiefly through the able defence of his counsel, Erskine.

In August 1816, a British fleet under Lord Exmouth was sent to Algiers to demand the surrender of all Christians whom the Algerines had seized and treated as slaves. The Dey having refused, and also insulted the British consul, the fleet bombarded the town for six hours. The bombardment forced the Dey to liberate nearly 1,100 Christian slaves, and laid the pirate-nest in ruins.

The right of publishing the debates in the Houses of Parliament was obtained in the early part of the reign. Woodfall, the printer of the 'Public Advertiser,' took a leading part in demanding this right. His paper is famous for the publication of a series of political letters, known as the *Letters of Junius*, written by some unknown hand; but the author is now generally believed to have been Sir Philip Francis.

In the spring of 1812, Mr. Perceval, the Prime Minister,

was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons by a merchant whose business had been ruined by the war.

An agitation against the African slave trade commenced in this reign. Mr. Wilberforce, a member of the House of Commons, took a leading part in the struggle, and succeeded in obtaining an Act to suppress the traffic, but his efforts to obtain the freedom of slaves in the colonies failed.

In 1781, Robert Raikes, a printer of Gloucester, opened the first Sunday-school. About the same time the philanthropist John Howard made a tour through Europe to amend the condition of prisons and prisoners. His work of mercy was brought to a sudden close at Cherson, in Russia, where he died of fever. (1790.) Popular education received a great impetus from the establishment of the National School Society and the British and Foreign School Society in 1811. The Religious Tract Society, Church Missionary Society, and Bible Society, all founded in this reign, furthered the cause of religious education.

In 1785, the London 'Times,' then called the 'Daily Universal Register,' was established. Among the inventions, discoveries, and improvements of the reign may be mentioned: the first improvement in the **steam-engine,** by Watt (1765); the **spinning-jenny** invented by Hargreaves, and the **spinning-frame** by Arkwright (1767); **Botany Bay** discovered by Captain Cook (1770); the **mule-jenny** invented by Crompton (1775); the **Sandwich Islands** discovered by Cook (1778); **mail-coaches** began to run (1784); the **power-loom** invented by Cartwright, and steam first applied to cotton-spinning (1785); **coal-gas** first used for lighting (1792); **vaccination** introduced by Dr. Jenner (1796); a **steam-boat** tried upon the Clyde (1802); a locomotive steam-engine first used on the railroad at Merthyr Tydvil (1804); London streets first lighted with gas (1807); a steam-boat began to ply on the Clyde (1812); the first steam-boat appeared on the Thames (1815); the Atlantic first crossed by a steamer (1816).

LEADING AUTHORS UNDER GEORGE III.

I. POETS.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH (1728–1774), born in Ireland: author of the 'Traveller,' 'The Deserted Village,' and several prose works.

WILLIAM COWPER (1731–1800), sometimes mentally deranged: author of the 'Task,' 'John Gilpin,' and a 'Translation of Homer.'

ROBERT BURNS (1759–1796), an Ayrshire farmer, the national poet of Scotland: famed for his lyric poems; his genius marred by intemperate habits.

HENRY KIRKE WHITE (1785–1806), born at Nottingham: died at an early age.

PERCY B. SHELLEY (1792–1822): author of 'Queen Mab,' 'Revolt of Islam,' &c.

II. PROSE WRITERS.

DAVID HUME (1711–1776), a Scotchman: author of 'History of England,' 'A Treatise on Human Nature,' and 'Essays.'

SIR WILLIAM BLACKSTONE (1723–1780), an eminent lawyer and judge: author of 'Commentaries on the Laws of England.'

SAMUEL JOHNSON (1709–1784), a native of Lichfield: chief works, 'The Lives of the Poets,' 'Rasselas,' and an 'English Dictionary.'

ADAM SMITH (1723–1790), a Scotchman: Professor of Logic in Glasgow University; chief work, 'The Wealth of Nations,' a standard text-book of political economy.

WILLIAM ROBERTSON (1721–1793), a Scotch divine: chief works, 'History of Scotland,' 'History of Charles V.' and 'History of America.'

EDWARD GIBBON (1737–1794), born in Surrey: chief work, 'The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.'

EDMUND BURKE (1728–1797), a native of Dublin; an orator and statesman: author of an 'Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful' and 'Reflections on the French Revolution.'

HUGH BLAIR (1718–1800), a Scotch divine: author of 'Sermons' and 'Lectures on Belles-Lettres.'

WILLIAM PALEY (1743–1805), Archdeacon of Carlisle: author of the 'Evidences of Christianity,' 'Natural Theology,' &c.

LEADING ARTISTS.

THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH (1727–1788), born in Suffolk: a famous landscape and portrait painter.

SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS (1723–1792), born in Devon: President of the Royal Academy; a famous portrait painter.

BENJAMIN WEST (1738–1820), born in America: President of the Royal Academy; a distinguished historical painter.

DAVID GARRICK (1716–1779), the most celebrated actor of his day.

LEADING INVENTORS.

JAMES BRINDLEY (1716–1772), a native of Derbyshire: engineer employed by the Duke of Bridgewater to make a canal from Worsley to Manchester.

SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT (1732–1792), born at Preston: originally a hair-dresser; invented the spinning-frame for use in cotton mills; reputed the founder of the cotton manufacture.

JOSIAH WEDGEWOOD (1730–1795): improved the porcelain manufacture; invented the 'Queen's ware.'

JAMES WATT (1736–1819), a Scotchman: invented the double-acting condensing steam-engine.

JOHN RENNIE (1761–1821), a famous engineer: constructed the Aberdeen canal; designed the East and West India Docks, London, and built Waterloo Bridge over the Thames.

GEORGE IV.

Born 1762 A.D. Began to Reign 1820 A.D. Died 1830 A.D.

The Cato Street Conspiracy.
Queen Caroline.
Foreign Affairs.
The Holy Alliance.
Battle of Navarino.
Agitation in Ireland.
Roman Catholic Relief Bill.
Death of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

The Cato Street Conspiracy. Queen Caroline.

GEORGE IV., eldest son of the late king, ascended the throne at the age of fifty-eight, after having discharged for nine years, as prince regent, all the duties of sovereignty. The latter years of the regency was a period of great distress and much discontent in the nation. The long wars had impoverished the country, and made taxation a very heavy burden. The peace of 1815 was followed by stagnation of trade and unfavourable harvests, and distress, in consequence, became very general. The working-classes gave vent to their discontent by loud demands for a change in the government of the country, and in many places they broke out into serious riots. Disaffection continued to spread, in spite of the vigorous action of the government; and at length, about the close of the reign of George III., a seditious profligate, named Thistlewood, organised a gang of associates to murder the cabinet ministers while at dinner with Lord Harrowby, burst open the prisons, set fire to London, and achieve a revolution. The plot was ripe for execution a few days after the accession of the prince regent. On the very evening of the day fixed for the crime, the conspirators were suddenly surprised by the police in a hay-loft in Cato Street, near the Edgware Road, where they were in the habit of assembling. Thistle-

wood and four of his accomplices in the **Cato Street Conspiracy,** as the plot was called, suffered the extreme penalty of the law, and the rest of the band were transported. (May 1, 1820.)

The excitement caused by the discovery of Thistlewood's conspiracy was soon forgotten in the deep interest taken by the public in the king's conduct towards his wife, Queen Caroline. George IV. had married the daughter of the Duke of Brunswick in 1795, but, from the first, the union proved a most unhappy one, and, after the birth of the Princess Charlotte, a separation took place. For several years the Princess of Wales lived a secluded life at Blackheath, but in 1815 she retired to Italy, where she conducted herself so imprudently as to give rise to many grave charges against her character. On her husband's accession, she resolved to return to England to claim her rights as queen. The king did his best to persuade her to remain abroad; 50,000*l.* a year should be paid to her if she would not return. The bribe was indignantly rejected, and the queen landed at Dover amidst the rejoicings of multitudes assembled to welcome her. (June 5, 1820.) The populace had little respect for a king whose whole life had been spent in profligate pleasures, and, though his wife had many faults, they were glad to make her return a fitting opportunity of showing their dislike to him. To the popular mind she was a woman deeply injured by a selfish husband, and her progress to London was one continued ovation. Her return and hearty reception so increased her husband's anger that he instructed his ministers to take proceedings against her with a view of obtaining a divorce. On July 6, 1820, Lord Liverpool, the premier, introduced into the House of Lords a 'Bill of Pains and Penalties,' charging her with unfaithfulness to the king during her residence in Italy. She was ably defended by Brougham, Denman, Williams, and Lushington, and, though the bill was carried in the Lords by a majority of nine, the ministry, feeling the hopelessness of passing it in the Commons, and intimidated by the excitement of the people, abandoned the measure.

Next year, Caroline demanded to be crowned with her husband, and on the coronation day she attempted to force her way into Westminster Abbey, but was repulsed by the guards. (July 19, 1821.) This last indignity thoroughly broke her spirit, and nineteen days later she was a corpse. By her will, she ordered that her body should be taken to Brunswick for burial, and that her coffin should bear the inscription, 'Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England.' The ministry intended that the funeral procession, on its way to Harwich, should avoid the principal streets of London; but the people resolved that it should march through the City, and receive all the honour that it was in their power to bestow. At Kensington they blocked up the way, forced the cortége to go through Hyde Park, and, after a serious conflict with the soldiers, compelled it to take the route of some of the chief thoroughfares.

Whilst London was thus the scene of confusion and riot, George was seeking the popularity denied him at home in Ireland, where, as the first British king who had visited the island in peace, he was received with acclamation. After spending a pleasant month in Ireland, he went to Hanover, and was again crowned amidst public rejoicings and festivity. In the following summer, he spent a fortnight in Scotland, being the first king since Charles II. who had paid a visit to that country. While enjoying the hearty welcome of his Scotch subjects, he received the news that one of his chief ministers, the Marquis of Londonderry (Lord Castlereagh) had committed suicide. This statesman was succeeded in the ministry by Mr. George Canning, as Foreign Secretary.

Foreign Affairs. The Holy Alliance. Battle of Navarino.

Though peace had been restored on the Continent, the principles of the French Revolution continued to spread amongst the various peoples, and caused much uneasiness to the ruling powers. After the battle of Waterloo, Austria, Russia, and Prussia entered into a **Holy Alliance**, by which

they solemnly declared their intention to carry on the affairs of State, both foreign and domestic, on the principles of Christianity. France also joined the alliance; but England, suspecting that its object was the maintenance of despotic government, kept aloof. Mr. Canning bent all the powers of his great mind to counteract the projects of the Holy Alliance, and to maintain a policy of non-interference in the internal affairs of foreign States.

In the East, the aggressions of the Burmese upon the frontiers of Bengal provoked the British Government to declare war against them. Hostilities commenced early in 1824, and were so successfully conducted by our countrymen that in less than two years the Burmese gladly sued for peace, and, by treaty, surrendered to Britain portions of the provinces of Aracan, Tenasserim, &c., containing an area of 80,000 square miles, and renounced all claims upon Assam and its dependencies. (February 1826.)

In 1821 the Greeks rose in revolt against the Turks, who had held the south-eastern part of Europe in tyrannous subjection for more than three centuries. The struggle of the Greeks for independence excited the greatest sympathy in England, and men and money were gladly raised to help the brave and hardy descendants of an admired ancient race. One of the most distinguished volunteers was Lord Byron, who placed his purse and pen at the disposal of Greece, and eventually died in her cause. For six years the struggle continued with the greatest barbarity on both sides. At length, in 1827, England, France, and Russia, signed a treaty in London to compel the Sultan to acknowledge the independence of Greece, and the combined fleets of the three countries, under Sir Edward Codrington, were sent to the Mediterranean to intimidate the Turks. The Sultan continued obstinate, and ordered up the Egyptian fleet of 90 sail, under Ibrahim Pasha, to reinforce his squadrons on the coast of the Morea. Ibrahim was intercepted by Codrington, but was allowed to join the Turkish fleet in Navarino Bay, on condition of remaining quiet till decisive orders came from Constantinople. The allied fleets also entered the bay, to ensure a performance of

Ibrahim's promise, and with orders not to commence hostilities unless the Turks should attack first. As might have been expected, a collision soon occurred. The Turks, under some misapprehension, fired into an English boat, and killed some of the crew. The nearest ships of the allied squadron retaliated, and, in a very short time, every vessel was hotly engaged in a battle without plan or design. In about four hours, the Turkish and Egyptian fleets had disappeared; the larger vessels were at the bottom of the bay—the smaller ones had taken refuge in the inner harbour. Oct. 20, 1827 A.D.

The destruction of the Turkish navy was regarded in England as an 'untoward event,' and ultimately led to the overthrow of the ministry. The battle of Navarino, however, put an end to the war. Greece became an independent kingdom, and its crown was accepted by Prince Otho of Bavaria.

Agitation in Ireland. Roman Catholic Relief Bill. Death of the King.

The most important political events of this reign were the removal of those disabilities under which Dissenters, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, had long laboured. In Ireland, the penal laws passed at the Revolution pressed so heavily upon the Roman Catholics that the demand for their repeal could no longer be safely disregarded by the government. Early in the reign, **Daniel O'Connell**, an Irish barrister of great eloquence, organised the *Catholic Association* for the express purpose of agitating the question of emancipation. The subject was frequently debated in the House of Commons, and motions in its favour were carried, but the House of Lords would not sanction the repeal of the penal laws. The agitation in Ireland increased to such an extent that civil war seemed imminent. In 1828, Lord John Russell successfully carried a motion repealing the Test and Corporation Acts, passed under Charles II., and it was thought that this concession would allay the prevailing discontent. But the Romanists con-

sidered the repeal of these laws more as a measure of justice to Protestant Dissenters than to themselves, and their clamours for the removal of their own disabilities became louder and more violent. In defiance of the law forbidding Roman Catholics to sit in Parliament, Daniel O'Connell was elected member for the county of Clare, and it became evident that a crisis was at hand. A Tory government was then in power, of which the Duke of Wellington was Prime Minister, and Mr. Peel Home Secretary. As long as it was safe, the ministry stoutly withstood the demands of O'Connell and his party, and, though they were encouraged in their resistance by Protestant clubs in all parts of the country, they saw that further concessions must be made to save the empire from the havoc of rebellion and civil war. Accordingly, it was announced at the opening of the parliamentary session of 1829 that the government intended to bring forward a Roman Catholic Relief Bill. The announcement caused great excitement in the country; Protestant meetings were held everywhere to protest against the measure; and the names of Wellington and Peel were denounced as traitors to their Church and king. Peel lost his seat for the University of Oxford, and the hero of Waterloo was forced by circumstances to fight a duel with the Earl of Winchelsea, once one of his warmest supporters. Many of the Tories refused to follow their leaders, but by the help of the Whigs the **Relief Bill** passed the two Houses, and became the law of the land. By this Act, Roman Catholics were emancipated from penal laws and placed on the same political footing as their fellow Protestant subjects; but they were still disqualified from the offices of regent, Viceroy of Ireland, and Lord Chancellor, and from posts connected with the English Church and Universities. Lord Surrey, son of the Duke of Norfolk, elected for Horsham, was the first Roman Catholic to enter the House of Commons in accordance with the provisions of the Relief Bill.

April 13, **1829** A.D.

The king spent the latter years of his reign in the greatest seclusion at Windsor. His favourite drives were

screened from the public gaze, and when he took exercise, outriders were sent in advance to see that the roads were clear of people. This love of retirement was due in a great degree to disease of the heart. He died at Windsor on June 26, 1830, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and left the crown to his next surviving brother.

George IV. is said to have possessed a mind of more than average ability. His well-shaped person was set off to the best advantage by a tasteful magnificence of dress, and his polished manners and courtly appearance obtained from his flatterers the title of the 'first gentleman in Europe.' But in morals he was as low as his father was high.

Miscellaneous Facts.

During this reign Captains Parry and Ross explored the Arctic Seas in search of a north-west passage. In 1822, **Mechanics' Institutes** were founded by Dr. Birkbeck; and the first steamboat was seen on the Thames. In 1824, the **National Gallery** was established. In 1825, the first steam voyage was made to India, and the first stone of the Thames Tunnel laid. In 1828, **London University** was opened. In 1829, a new Police Act was introduced by Sir Robert Peel. In 1830, **Omnibuses** were introduced from France, and a part of York Minster burnt down.

LEADING AUTHORS UNDER GEORGE IV.

LORD BYRON (1788–1824), a great poet: lived a profligate life; author of 'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage,' and many other poems. Died at Missolonghi, in Greece.

DUGALD STEWART (1753–1828), Professor of Moral Philosophy in Edinburgh: chief works, 'Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind,' 'Outlines of Moral Philosophy, 'Philosophical Essays.'

LEADING ARTISTS.

JOHN FLAXMAN (1755–1826), a native of York: great sculptor; chief works illustrative of ancient Greek and Latin authors.

SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE (1769–1830), born in Bristol: a famous portrait painter; called the English Titian; became President of the Royal Academy.

JOHN PHILIP KEMBLE (1757–1823), a distinguished tragedian.

LEADING INVENTORS, &c.

SAMUEL CROMPTON (1753–1827), inventor of the spinning-frame called the 'Mule.'

SIR WILLIAM CONGREVE (1772–1828), inventor of rockets and lucifer matches.

SIR WILLIAM HERSCHEL (1738–1822), a native of Hanover: at first a musician; an improver of the telescope; a great astronomer; discovered the planet 'Uranus,' &c.

SIR HUMPHREY DAVY (1778–1829), a native of Cornwall: apprenticed to a surgeon: invented the 'Safety-lamp;' made many discoveries in chemistry and electricity; Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Institution of London; author of 'Chemical and Philosophical Researches.'

WILLIAM IV.

Born 1765 A.D. Began to Reign 1830 A.D. Died 1837 A.D.

Parliamentary Reform.
Acts of the Reformed Parliament.
Abolition of Slavery.
Foreign Affairs.
Death and Character of the King.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Parliamentary Reform.

The Duke of Clarence, fourth son of George III., ascended the throne, with the title of William IV. He had entered the royal navy at the age of thirteen, and had seen some service under Admirals Rodney and Nelson, but the greater part of his life, subsequent to the French Revolution, was spent in privacy at Bushey Park. His frank sailor-like manners won for him popularity, esteem, and the title of the 'Sailor-king.' His wife, Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, was distinguished for her many virtues, and will be long remembered for her works of charity.

At the time of William's accession, the question of a reform of the House of Commons occupied the public mind. For many years there had been a growing demand for a change in parliamentary representation. The distress which followed the long wars of George III. was attributed by many persons to a bad system of government, and it was said that reform of the House of Commons was the only means of restoring prosperity to the country. A change was certainly needed; for many towns, such as Liverpool, Manchester, and Leeds, which contained a teeming population, were without representation at all, while many small and insignificant places returned to Parliament one or more members. One of these small boroughs, Old Sarum, had not a single house and yet it

retained the right of sending two members to the House of Commons. The large centres of population, unrepresented in Parliament, could no longer suffer this state of things to continue, and, encouraged by the successful clamours of the Roman Catholics in the previous reign, they became loud in their demands for parliamentary reform. The disturbed state of the Continent greatly influenced this important question. William had scarcely ascended the throne, when a second revolution broke out in France; and after three days' fighting in the streets of Paris, Charles X. fled for his life, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was made 'King of the French.' The people of Belgium followed the example of their neighbours, and revolted from the rule of Holland. These revolutions, while they encouraged the English people upon the question of reform, strengthened the resolve of the Tory ministry to withstand all changes. But the new Parliament which assembled soon after the king's accession was so opposed to the Tory policy, that the Duke of Wellington was compelled to make way for a Whig ministry under Earl Grey. On March 1, 1831, Lord John Russell, then Paymaster of the Forces, introduced his **Reform Bill.** The two parties in the House of Commons were so evenly balanced, that another appeal was made to the country, and a new House was returned, containing a majority of members pledged to carry 'the Bill.' In the Commons, after desperate struggles, the measure was carried by a large majority, but it was thrown out in the Lords. The rejection of the bill by the Upper House caused great excitement throughout the country. Serious riots broke out in many places. In London the houses of many of the nobility were the objects of popular vengeance, and the residence of the Duke of Wellington, especially, was often besieged by a furious mob. Nottingham, Derby, and Bristol, were the scenes of serious outrages. Nottingham Castle was burnt to the ground, and the riots in Bristol were only suppressed after much of the city had been destroyed, and more than a hundred persons had been cut down by the military.

On the assembling of Parliament, the Reform Bill was

again introduced, and passed the Lower House; but as the king refused to increase the number of Whig peers in the Lords, Earl Grey resigned office. An attempt to form a Tory ministry under the Duke of Wellington failed, and the Whigs again returned to power, amid the acclamations of the people. The members of the Upper House had then no alternative but to let the bill pass, and, by the absence of many of the Opposition peers, the Government obtained a majority, and the Reform Bill became law.

June 7, 1832 A.D.

The changes produced by this important measure were twofold: (1) the seats in Parliament were more justly distributed; and (2) the franchise, or right of voting, was reduced. The 'pocket' boroughs, such as Gratton and Old Sarum, amounting in all to fifty-six, were disfranchised, and thirty small towns, which returned two representatives each, were allowed to elect only one. The members thus gained were given to the counties and the manufacturing towns. The right of voting for boroughs was given to the tenants of houses worth 10*l.* a year or upwards. In the counties all were entitled to vote who had freeholds of the value of forty shillings, or land worth 10*l.* a year, or who paid an annual rental of 50*l.* Similar bills for Scotland and Ireland passed in the same year. Parliamentary representation was, henceforth, conducted according to the provisions of the Reform Act, until the year 1868, when a more popular measure became law.

Acts of the Reformed Parliament. Abolition of Slavery.

The new Parliament assembled early in 1833, and proceeded to pass very important measures. Of these, the most memorable was one abolishing negro slavery in all the British colonies and possessions. The merit of this work of Christian charity is mainly due to Mr. William Wilberforce, a merchant of Hull, and member for the county of York, who for years had devoted himself to the question of the emancipation of the slaves. The proposal was warmly debated

in Parliament, and stoutly opposed by persons interested in the traffic; but the determined efforts of Wilberforce, Brougham, Buxton, Clarkson, and a host of others, succeeded in putting an end to the trade in human flesh wherever the flag of England waved. The slaves, however, did not obtain their freedom all at once. It was enacted that children under six years of age should be declared free in the summer of 1834, but that others should serve an apprenticeship to their present owners for seven years, if field slaves, and for five, if domestics. For the 800,000 slaves who thus received their freedom, a compensation of 20,000,000*l.* was paid to their masters. Wilberforce, having converted the dream of his life into a reality, died in the same year.

1833 A.D.

In the following year, the attention of the Government was drawn to Ireland, where O'Connell was agitating for the disestablishment of the Irish Church, and the repeal of the Union. The disorders that arose in consequence were met by a **Coercion Bill**, but the Act caused a split among the ministerial supporters. An attempt was also made on the part of the Government to remove some of the Irish grievances by abolishing ten bishoprics and re-arranging the revenues of the Church. The Cabinet could not agree upon the difficult question of appeasing Ireland, and Earl Grey was forced to resign office. His place as premier was filled by Lord Melbourne, who in the same year passed a very important measure improving the Poor Laws. The system of relief hitherto practised encouraged pauperism to such an extent that the poor-rate amounted to 7,000,000*l.* The new Act forbade the relief of all able-bodied paupers in their own homes, and required all who wanted support to enter the workhouse and do a certain amount of work for every meal. The Local Boards, too, were placed under the supervision of government.

In the year 1835, the **Municipal Act** was passed, which gave to the ratepayers of cities and boroughs the right of electing town-councillors, who were privileged to appoint from their number their own chief magistrate.

Several important measures marked the year 1836.

The **Tithe Commutation Act** substituted for tithes a rent-charge, which was regulated by the average price of corn in the seven preceding years. Some of the English dioceses were re-arranged, and the bishoprics of Ripon and Manchester established. By other bills, marriages were allowed to be solemnised in Dissenting chapels, or contracted before a registrar appointed by the guardians of the poor; and a system of registration of births, marriages, and deaths was adopted.

Foreign Affairs. Death and Character of the King.

The foreign policy of England throughout this reign was a peaceful one. The revolt of Belgium from Holland was the only cause of interruption of friendly feelings with any foreign Power on the part of the British Government. The King of Holland, naturally loth to lose such a fine province, did his best to recover his authority, but the English and French, interfering on behalf of the Belgians, blockaded the Dutch ports, and forced the king to submit to the loss. Belgium became an independent kingdom, and its crown was given to Prince Leopold, the husband of the Princess Charlotte. (1832.)

In 1835, English volunteers were allowed to take part in the civil war raging in Spain between Queen Isabella and her uncle, Don Carlos. General Evans took charge of a British legion in support of the queen, and for nearly two years experienced much hard fighting and privation.

William IV. died on June 20, 1837, in the seventy-second year of his age. He was a man of ordinary talent, business-like habits, and good common sense. His genial manners, warm heart, and simplicity of soul, recommended him to the goodwill of his subjects. By his wife, Queen Adelaide, he had two daughters, who died in infancy; but by a previous marriage, considered illegal, he left a numerous family of illegitimate children, to whom he gave the name of Fitz-Clarence.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1830, the first of those railways which now cover the face of the whole country was opened between Liverpool and Manchester. The Duke of Wellington, then Prime Minister, graced the ceremony with his presence, but the rejoicings of the day were marred by a fatal accident to Mr. Huskisson, who was struck down by a passing engine, and so crushed that death ensued in a few hours.

Towards the close of the year 1831, a dreadful pestilence, called the **Cholera**, which had first appeared in India in 1817, and had been slowly travelling westwards, broke out in Sunderland. Its ravages were checked by the winter, but on the return of spring it committed sad havoc throughout the country, and swept away some 60,000 persons. It disappeared from England about the close of the autumn of 1832. This dreaded scourge has visited our shores on several occasions since, but the progress of sanitary reform has considerably lessened its evils.

In 1833, the first Quaker, Mr. Pease, was admitted to the House of Commons as member for South Durham. Durham University was also founded. In 1834, the Houses of Parliament were destroyed by fire; and in the same year, South Australia was colonised. The British Association for the Advancement of Science held its first meeting at York in 1831.

LEADING AUTHORS UNDER WILLIAM IV.

POETS.

SIR WALTER SCOTT (1771–1832), a Scotch barrister: wrote 'Marmion,' 'The Lay of the Last Minstrel,' 'The Lady of the Lake,' &c.; author of the Waverley Novels, and other prose writings.

SAMUEL T. COLERIDGE (1772–1834), native of Devonshire: a poet of great originality and genius: author of 'The Ancient Mariner;' 'Lady Christabel,' and several prose works.

FELICIA HEMANS (1794–1835), a writer of lyric poems: chief works, 'Songs of the Affections,' and 'Records of Woman.'

PROSE WRITERS.

ADAM CLARKE (1762–1832), a Wesleyan minister: author of a 'Commentary on the Bible.'

JEREMY BENTHAM (1747–1832), a famous writer on legislation and moral philosophy: author of 'Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation,' &c.

CHARLES LAMB (1775–1834), a wit and essayist: wrote 'Essays of Elia,' &c.

WILLIAM COBBETT (1762–1835), son of a yeoman: self-taught; once a common soldier; a political writer of some note; author of an 'English Grammar,' 'Advice to Young Men,' and many other works.

MRS. SIDDONS (1755-1831) and **EDMUND KEAN** (1787–1833) were famous for their histrionic art.

VICTORIA.

Born May 24, 1819 A.D. Began to Reign June 20, 1837 A.D.

Rebellion in Canada.
The Chartists.
Troubles in Ireland.
War in Syria.
Wars with China.
Indian Affairs.
Afghan War.
Ameers of Scinde.
The Sikh Wars.
War with Burmah.
The Sepoy Mutiny.
War with Russia.
Abyssinian War.
Ministerial Changes and Measures.
Repeal of the Corn Laws.
Second Reform Bill.
Irish Church Bill.
National Education.
Miscellaneous Facts.

Rebellion in Canada. The Chartists. Troubles in Ireland.

Alexandrina Victoria, only daughter of Edward Duke of Kent, was immediately proclaimed queen on the death of her uncle, and on June 28 in the following year she was crowned at Westminster. As the Salic law, which forbade a female to occupy the throne, was in force in Hanover, the queen's accession severed that country from the British empire; and Ernest Duke of Cumberland, brother of William IV., became its king.

On February 10, 1840, Her Majesty was married to her cousin, Prince Albert, second son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Parliament voted him an annuity of 30,000*l.*; and the queen, some years later, conferred upon him the title of Prince Consort.

The beginning of the reign was marked by a **rebellion in Canada.** For several years there had been in that portion of our empire much dissatisfaction with English rule, which was greatly encouraged by numerous American sympathisers. As soon as the winter of 1837 had set in,

the Canadians rose in revolt, and made an unsuccessful attack upon Toronto. Men and stores from the United States came to their assistance; but in consequence of the president's proclamation forbidding American subjects to commit acts of war against Great Britain, the rebels lost much of the support upon which they had relied. The troops in the colony and the loyal subjects of the Upper Province were quite strong enough to meet the crisis, and the insurrection, deprived of foreign aid, was speedily suppressed. In the winter of the following year, a second rising took place in Lower Canada, but it was quickly put down. By judicious measures of reform, the Canadians became reconciled to the empire; but to ensure the peace and security of the colony, the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were united into one. (February 10, 1841.)

About the same time, England was much disturbed by the Chartist movement. The Reform Bill of the previous reign did not satisfy those who had clamoured for radical and sweeping changes in the Constitution. Disappointed in their expectations, they took advantage of the discontent which followed the bad harvests of the first two years of the reign to agitate for a more radical reform. The supporters of the movement were called **Chartists**, because they embodied their demands in what they called a 'People's Charter.' This document contained six points: 1. *Universal suffrage.* 2. *Vote by Ballot.* 3. *Annual parliaments.* 4. *Electoral districts.* 5. *The abolition of the property qualification for Members.* 6. *The payment of parliamentary representatives.* In 1838, the Chartists became so threatening and violent that the Government was compelled to put a stop to their torch-light meetings, and to take active measures against the most seditious leaders. In the following year a rising was attempted in Monmouthshire, and a fruitless attack was made upon Newport. The leaders of the riots—Frost, Williams, and Jones—were arrested and condemned to death; but they were afterwards reprieved and transported for life. The energy of the Government thoroughly cowed the 'physical-force Chartists,' and for

several years they remained tolerably quiet. The movement, however, received an impetus from the French Revolution of 1848, and, under the leadership of Feargus O'Connor, threatened again to cause the Government some trouble. On Kennington Common, 20,000 misguided men assembled for the purpose of walking in procession to Westminster to present a monster petition in favour of their claims. The Government appealed to the loyalty of the capital, and 200,000 citizens enrolled themselves as special constables for the preservation of order. The procession, overawed by this display of loyalty, passed off without any disturbance; and from that day Chartism never again showed its head.

Meanwhile, the condition of Ireland was in a most unsatisfactory state. Every concession of the English Government failed to give peace to that unfortunate country. O'Connell's agitation for a repeal of the Union had received such support from the Roman Catholic priesthood that the collections, or 'Repeal Rent,' at the chapel doors, in the year 1843, amounted to 48,000*l*. Monster meetings were held at Tara, the site of Ireland's ancient capital, and other places, where much sedition was spouted. The proposal to hold a gathering at Clontarf, a place famous in old Irish history for a victory over the Danes, led to the issue of a proclamation forbidding such assemblies, and on the day intended for the meeting, the lord-lieutenant sent soldiers to occupy the ground. On October 14, 1843, O'Connell and several other leaders were arrested on the charges of conspiracy and sedition. They were tried, convicted, and condemned to fines and imprisonment; but an appeal being made to the House of Lords, the sentence was annulled on account of some informality. O'Connell, warned by his narrow escape, afterwards remained quiet. He died at Genoa, May 15, 1847, while on his way to Rome to ask the Pope's blessing.

The more violent members of the Repeal movement, scorning the inactivity of the great agitator, had formed themselves into the 'Young Ireland Party,' for the express purpose of severing the Union by force of arms. The failure

of the potato crop in 1845, and the consequent famine, during which starvation and emigration reduced the population of the island to the extent of two millions, had increased the imaginary grievances of the Irish people, and swelled the ranks of the disaffected, in spite of the generous sympathy and aid which England gave to Ireland in her distress. Treasonable newspapers, of which the most violent was 'The United Irishman,' edited by John Mitchell, excited the people to rebellion. At length, during the exciting year 1848, a feeble attempt at insurrection was made in Tipperary, under Smith O'Brien, the member for Limerick. A few policemen sufficed to crush the attempted rising, and its valiant leader was arrested while skulking in a cabbage-garden. O'Brien and three others were condemned to death, but the sentence was changed to transportation for life. After a few years' exile, they were all pardoned or allowed to escape.

Ireland then settled down in quietness for some years, and began to reap the blessings of peace in a rapid increase of prosperity. The hopes of the best friends of the country were, however, shattered in 1865 by the discovery of a conspiracy for the establishment of an Irish Republic. The movement had its origin in America among the Yankee-Irish, who, having become inured to bloodshed and disorder in the civil war between the Northern and Southern States, and having lost their occupation on the return of peace, thought Ireland a fair field wherein to put their military ruffianism to the test. The society thus organised received the name of the **Fenian Brotherhood**, from a name borne in old times by some mysterious organisation of Irishmen. The vigorous action of the Government checked the designs of this mischievous society, and by suspending the Habeas Corpus Act, freed Ireland from the numerous fillibustering adventurers who were making a rich harvest in their game of rascality. Foiled across the Irish Channel, some English towns became the hot-beds of Fenian sedition, and the scenes of some of its violence. At Manchester, a prison-van, containing two or three Fenian leaders, was attacked in broad daylight by an armed body

of conspirators, and a policeman was shot. In London, a portion of the wall of Clerkenwell prison was blown down, by which many persons were killed or maimed for life.

The British Government, wishing to give permanent peace to Ireland, passed an Act, in 1869, for the disestablishment of the Irish Church; and, in the following year, endeavoured to make a better understanding between landlord and tenant by a Land Bill. Nothing, however, seems able to pacify that distracted country; and, in spite of all the concessions of Government, the agitation for 'Home Rule,' or repeal of the Union, is once more the order of the day.

War in Syria. Wars with China.

In 1840, England, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, united to protect the Sultan of Turkey against his rebellious vassal Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt, whose army, under his son Ibrahim, had overrun Syria, and threatened the destruction of the Turkish empire. A British fleet, under Admiral Stopford and Commodore Napier, bombarded Beyrout, Sidon, and Acre, and compelled Ibrahim to withdraw from Syria. The Pacha, disappointed in not receiving help from France, made peace with the Sultan, on condition that the right of ruling Egypt should be hereditary in his family.

Meanwhile, a dispute had arisen with China about the trade in opium, an article which the Chinese authorities had prohibited to be imported, on account of its injurious effects. But British merchants continued to smuggle the drug into the country, in defiance of the prohibition, and provoked a quarrel which ended in war. In 1839, the Chinese Government ordered the destruction of more than 20,000 chests of opium, imprisoned the British Commissioner, and threatened the expulsion of all English merchants. For these vigorous measures, the English Government demanded satisfaction, and, on its refusal, declared war. (1840.) A large military force from India, under

Generals Pottinger and Gough, soon effected the reduction of the chief places near the coast; and on the appearance of our army before the walls of Nankin, the Chinese signed a treaty of peace. (August, 1842.) They agreed to pay 4,375,000*l.* for the expenses of the war, in addition to 1,250,000*l.* paid for the confiscated opium; to cede Hong Kong to the British; and to open the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo, Ningpo, and Shanghae, to our merchants.

In 1856, another war arose with China. Some Chinese soldiers boarded a ship called the 'Arrow,' sailing under British colours, seized a portion of the crew, and pulled down the English flag. Commissioner Yeh, of Canton, having refused to apologise for this outrage, hostilities commenced, and an united force of English and French captured the town. (1857.) In the following spring, an allied British and French fleet, having on board Lord Elgin, Her Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary, sailed up the Peiho, *en route* to Pekin, but at Tien-Tsin the expedition was met by some Chinese commissioners, who concluded a treaty of peace favourable to our interests. (June 26, 1858.) By this it was agreed to open additional ports for commerce; to tolerate Christianity throughout the empire; to send a Chinese ambassador to London, and to receive a British minister at Pekin. Next summer, as the English envoy with a squadron was ascending the Peiho to ratify the treaty of peace at Pekin, the Chinese suddenly opened fire upon the ships, and drove them back with heavy loss. (1859.) This treacherous outrage was avenged in the following year by an Anglo-French expedition, which gallantly stormed the Taku forts at the mouth of the Peiho, and, after twice defeating the Tartar troops, scaled the walls of Pekin, and dictated terms of peace in the emperor's palace. (October 13, 1860.) An ample apology was made for the treacherous attack of the previous year, and the treaty of Tien-Tsin ratified.

Indian Affairs.

Wars with the Afghans; Ameers of Scinde; the Sikhs; Burmese. Sepoy Mutiny.

In 1839, the English interfered in the affairs of Afghanistan, and experienced one of the greatest disasters that ever befell their arms. The British Government, suspicious of the designs of Russia upon our Indian empire, was anxious to have on the throne of Afghanistan a ruler friendly to English interests. Dost Mahommed, who had usurped the Afghan throne, had lately shown himself so hostile that it was thought advisable to send a force to Cabul to depose him, and replace Shah-Soojah. The expedition having proved successful, a part of the army was withdrawn, while the rest remained to support the authority of the English nominee. Everything seemed so quiet that the soldiers sent for their wives and children; but in November, 1841, the Afghans, disliking the rule of foreign bayonets, rose up in arms, and completely hemmed in the British forces. Akbar Khan, son of Dost Mahommed, had already seized the Khyber Pass, through which lay the only road to Hindostan, and the English army was entirely at the mercy of its enemies. General Elphinstone, the British commander, agreed with Akbar to evacuate the country; but the Afghans soon showed how little they cared for treaties by the murder of Sir William Macnaughten and several officers whom they had invited to a conference. Elphinstone commenced the retreat on January 6, 1842. About 4,500 soldiers, and 12,000 camp-followers, besides women and children, set out from Cabul to cross a rugged and mountainous country in the depth of an inclement winter, and in the face of a fierce and relentless foe. Jelalabad, the nearest place of refuge, lay ninety miles distant. On the first day's march the retreating army could only advance five miles through the snow; and, beset on all sides by yelling Afghans, it had to bivouac for the night without shelter and almost without food. Before morning, many were found frozen to

death. Ere three days had passed, 3,000 perished of starvation or by the hands of their enemies. The married men and their wives surrendered to Akbar Khan; the rest of the survivors pushed on in spite of all opposition, but each day their ranks decreased in number. On January 13, the garrison of Jelalabad saw a single man approaching their walls, mounted on a wretched little pony, and hanging exhausted upon its neck. He proved to be Dr. Brydon, the only one of the force which left Cabul a week before who had escaped to tell the tale.

General Sale, the commander at Jelalabad, waited for the advance of General Pollock, who bravely fought his way through the Khyber Pass to avenge his slaughtered countrymen; and combining their forces with those of General Nott, they advanced upon Cabul, and planted once more the British flag on the ramparts of the city. Having rescued the prisoners, destroyed the fortifications, and thus restored English prestige, the army evacuated Afghanistan. (October 12, 1842.) Shah-Soojah fell by the hands of an assassin, and Dost Mahommed remounted the throne. A few years later, he made a friendly alliance with Britain.

In the year following the Afghan war, a dispute arose with the Ameers of Scinde, whose territory lay around the river Indus. Sir Charles Napier was sent with a small army of 2,500 men to overawe the Ameers, who had attacked the British residency at Hyderabad. At **Meanee**, he encountered a hostile force of 30,000 men, and inflicted upon them a severe defeat. Their capital, Hyderabad, then fell into his hands, and, after another victory near the walls of the city, Scinde was conquered and annexed to the British dominions. (1843.)

On the north-east of Scinde lies the district of the Punjab, or country of the five rivers, inhabited by a warlike race of men called Sikhs. In December, 1845, they commenced an unprovoked war with the English, and, crossing the Sutlej, advanced to give battle to the British forces under Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge, stationed at **Moodkee**. (December 18.) In this engage-

ment, the Sikhs were severely beaten, and three days later they were again defeated by the same generals at **Ferozeshah**. Retreating across the Sutlej, they were pursued by Sir Harry Smith, and worsted in a terrible conflict at **Aliwal**. (January 28, 1846.) The decisive victory of **Sobraon**, in the following month, opened up the way to Lahore, the capital of the Punjab, where the victors dictated terms of peace.

In 1848, an outbreak at Mooltan, where two British officers were slain, renewed the war. Lord Gough, after an indecisive engagement at **Ramnuggur**, attacked a great Sikh host, strongly entrenched, at **Chillianwalla**; but the battle was so indecisive that the victory was claimed by both sides. (January 13, 1849.) So terrible was the British loss on this occasion, that General Napier was hastily sent out from England to take the command. Before his arrival, Gough gained a decisive victory at **Goojerat**, where, for the first time, Sikh and Afghan were banded together against the British power. (February 21, 1849.) This battle put an end to the war. The Punjab was then annexed to the British empire, and its ruler, Maharajah Dhuleep Sing Bahadoor, a boy eleven years old, became a pensioner of the East India Company. At the same time, the valuable diamond called the 'Koh-i-noor' was surrendered to the Queen of England. The 'Maharajah' afterwards embraced Christianity, and took up his residence in England, where he now possesses several estates.

The Sikh war was no sooner ended than the attention of the Indian Government was called to **Burmah**. The Governor of Rangoon having ill-treated several merchants and commanders of vessels, Commodore Lambert was sent from Calcutta with a small squadron to demand reparation. The King of Ava refused to grant any redress, and, consequently, a British force, early in 1852, invaded his territories. Martaban, Rangoon, Bassein, and Pegu, soon fell into our hands; and, as the king showed no signs of submission, the province of **Pegu** was annexed to the British dominions, and all communications with the capital strictly

cut off. (December 20, 1852.) The blockade of the Irrawaddy brought the king to his senses, and in the spring of 1853 he sought peace, and ceded by treaty the province which had been annexed. This territory, containing 40,000 square miles, and a population of 3,000,000, was added to our empire.

The peace which followed these wars in the East was broken in 1857 by a **Mutiny of the Sepoys**, or native troops. The army of the East India Company was chiefly composed of natives, of whom a large proportion were high-caste Brahmins. These men had been so pampered and petted that the idea became very prevalent among them that the empire could not continue without their services, and on several occasions in late years they had showed a mutinous spirit. The religious differences of the Brahmin and Mahometan troops strengthened the hands of Government in dealing with the native army, but, unfortunately, the authorities, by some strange fatality, issued cartridges greased with animal fat, which offended the religious scruples of both Hindoos and Mahometans, and enabled them to enter into a mutual league for the overthrow of our Indian empire. Every concession of the Government failed to remove the suspicion, which evil designing men had cunningly suggested, that the Christian religion only was to be tolerated in India. The spirit of disaffection at length burst forth into revolt at **Meerut**, in the spring of 1857. The mutineers, having murdered their European officers with their wives and children, and set fire to the cantonments, hastened to **Delhi**, where they were received with acclamation. The King of Delhi assumed the title and authority of Mogul, and basely connived at the massacre of all the Europeans who had sought refuge in the royal palace. The flame of revolt quickly spread to all the chief stations in Bengal, and at most of them fearful horrors were perpetrated. **Cawnpore**, especially, was the scene of revolting cruelty. There Nana Sahib, a Mahratta chief, who had always pretended great friendship for the English, and who, a year or two before, had been welcomed in the drawing-rooms of London, in-

veigled some hundreds of men, women, and children into his power, and then allowed his frenzied soldiery to butcher them in cold blood. Throughout this terrible crisis in India, the English who escaped massacre behaved with the greatest heroism. At **Lucknow**, they endured all the horrors of a terrible siege until relieved by Sir Colin Campbell (Lord Clyde). Delhi was recaptured with the greatest daring after a siege of three months; and before the close of the year, the whole of Bengal lay once more at the feet of England. Amongst the valiant men who shed lustre upon the English name and helped to restore British supremacy in the East, may be mentioned the names of Outram, Havelock, Lawrence, Nicholson, and Hodson. A terrible vengeance overtook the leaders and abettors of the mutiny, while the chiefs who remained faithful were amply rewarded. The miscreant Nana Sahib, however, made good his escape.

The mutiny caused many changes in Hindostan. The government of the country was transferred from the East India Company to the Queen of England, and a Secretary of State for India, with a Council of fifteen persons, was appointed to manage the affairs of our Eastern empire.

War with Russia.

After the battle of Waterloo, Europe remained free from any great war for forty years. In 1853, Russia, acting under the belief that the time had come for the dismemberment of the Turkish empire, picked a quarrel with the Sultan about the 'Holy Places' at Jerusalem, and sent an army across the Pruth to occupy the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Czar Nicholas had previously attempted to gain the co-operation of England by proposing to give to her Egypt, and perhaps Candia, as her share of the 'sick man's' spoils. A similar offer was also made to France. Turkey, relying upon the aid of the Western Powers, declared war against Russia. (October 4, 1853.) **Omar Pasha**, the Turkish commander-in-chief, crossed the Danube, and repulsed the Russians at Olteniza; but this first success was soon after counter-

balanced by the destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope. France and Britain, after vainly striving to preserve peace, entered into an alliance for the protection of the Sultan's dominions, and declared war against Russia (March 28, 1854.)

The French and English armies, under **Marshal St. Arnaud** and **Lord Raglan** respectively, assembled at Varna to cover Constantinople; but the Turks so gallantly defended the banks of the Danube that the allies found themselves at liberty to transfer their arms to the **Crimea**, for the capture of Sebastopol. The allied fleets, after bombarding Odessa, convoyed the troops across the Black Sea, and on September 14, 56,000 men, including 6,000 Turks, landed without opposition at **Eupatoria**. The Russian commander, Prince Menschikoff, had taken up what he considered an impregnable position on the river **Alma**; and so confident was he of victory, that he had invited a party of ladies from Sebastopol to witness the destruction of the invaders. But he soon found out his mistake. In three hours his army of 50,000 men was driven from the heights of Alma, leaving 8,000 dead or wounded on the field. The allied loss amounted to 3,479 men, of which nearly 2,000 were British. The Russians then retreated to Sebastopol, while the allies boldly marched across the country and took up a position on the south side of that great stronghold. The British made the little port of Balaklava their head-quarters. On October 17, the city was attacked by land and sea; but the famous Russian engineer, Todleben, had made such good use of the interval of time since the Alma, that the place was almost impregnable. Eight days after this unsuccessful bombardment, the Russians attacked the British position at **Balaklava**, but were repulsed. This battle will ever be memorable for the gallant charge of our Light Cavalry Brigade upon the enemy's batteries. By some mistake in the delivery of orders, six hundred horsemen charged an army in position, literally rushing 'into the jaws of death'! In the following month, the enemy, taking advantage of a thick mist, attempted to surprise the English position on

Sept. 20, **1854** A.D.

Oct. 25, **1854** A.D.

the slopes of **Inkermann**. Forty thousand Russians issued from the city in the early morning, and had advanced close to the English pickets before their presence was discovered, and against this host only 8,000 British soldiers could be mustered. But every man fought like a hero, and, in spite of overwhelming odds, kept the enemy in check for several hours, till the arrival of a French force completed their discomfiture.

Nov. 5, 1854 A.D.

While these things were going on in the Black Sea, Admiral Napier, with the British fleet, accompanied by a French squadron, entered the Baltic. Cronstadt, the great fortress which guards the approach to St. Petersburgh, was too strong to be attacked, and, as the Russian fleet feared to leave port, little remained to be done in that quarter. **Bomarsund**, in the Aland Isles, was captured, and, after this exploit, the allies withdrew from the Baltic. Some English ships visited the White Sea, blockaded Archangel, and destroyed a part of Kola.

During the winter months the troops in the Crimea suffered dreadful hardships. The British soldiers, especially, died by hundreds, of cold, sickness, and want, though abundance of stores of all kinds was lying at Balaklava, a few miles off from the camp. This mismanagement excited such indignation in England as to occasion the fall of the Aberdeen Ministry. The British public did its best by lavish generosity to atone for the failure of the Government. There were few English homes where hands were not busy in making some comfort or other for our starving soldiers in the trenches before Sebastopol.

In January, 1855, Sardinia joined the Western Powers, and sent an army of 15,000 men to the Crimea. A railway was also made from Balaklava to the British camp, and an electric telegraph was laid down to connect the Crimea with the Western capitals. A Russian attack upon Eupatoria, in February, proved a failure. The death of the Emperor Nicholas, on March 2, seemed to offer a prospect of peace, but the allies were bent on the destruction of Sebastopol, and so the war continued. While the siege went slowly on, a naval expedition, in the month of May,

entered the Sea of Azov, captured Kertsch and several other places, and destroyed vast quantities of stores. During the summer, the chief command in both armies changed hands more than once. Lord Raglan succumbed to cholera, and was succeeded by General Simpson, who soon resigned the command to Sir William Codrington. In the French army, General Canrobert, who had succeeded St. Arnaud, was superseded by Pelissier. In August, the Russians attacked the Franco-Sardinian position on the Tchernaya, but were repulsed with loss. The perseverance of the allies was at length crowned with success. On September 8, the Malakoff Tower, the key of the Russian position, was taken with a rush by the French, while the English made a diversion by assaulting the Redan, which, however, from its exposed nature, they were unable to hold. The fate of Sebastopol was now sealed. During the night Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian commander, after sinking all the ships, withdrew to the north side of the harbour, and the allies became masters of the city against which their cannon had thundered for about a year. All the dockyards and batteries of the town were then blown up, and the great stronghold became a heap of ruins.

In the summer of 1855, Admiral Dundas, the successor of Napier, entered the Baltic and bombarded Sveaborg; but the Russian fleet, as before, remained safely behind the Cronstadt forts.

In Circassia, the Turks, under the command of the celebrated Schamyl, fought bravely against the enemy. There the English General Williams distinguished himself by the able defence of **Kars**, which famine at length compelled him to surrender (November 7, 1855).

The fall of Sebastopol virtually put an end to the war. Peace negotiations terminated in the **Treaty of Paris**, by which Russia agreed to recede from the demands that led to the war; to give up the protectorate of the Danubian Principalities; to dismantle the fortifications of Sebastopol; and to keep only a limited number of war-ships in the Black Sea. This treaty has lately undergone some modifications favourable to Russia.

Mar. 30, **1856** A.D.

The Abyssinian War.

The quarrel with Abyssinia arose from the conduct of its half-civilised king, Theodore, towards some British subjects. Theodore, having taken offence because a letter of his to our Queen had not been answered, seized the British Consul, and other Europeans on whom he managed to lay hands, and kept them in prison, threatening even to take their lives. All remonstrances on the part of our Government failed to move the tyrannical king, and it was therefore resolved to send an expedition to release the captives. In 1868, a well-equipped army of about 10,000 men, under Sir Robert Napier, a distinguished Indian officer, was despatched to the eastern coast of Africa. **Magdala**, Theodore's capital, lay far inland, and to this place there was no direct road from the sea; but, nothing daunted, our troops cut a way for themselves, and succeeded in reaching the tyrant's stronghold almost without firing a shot. The garrison of the place had little chance against the Snider rifles and Armstrong guns of the English army, and Theodore, when he saw that all was lost, committed suicide. The European captives were liberated, Magdala destroyed, and the young son of its late king was brought to England to be educated. Sir Robert Napier was rewarded for his success with the title of Lord Napier of Magdala.

Ministerial Changes and Measures.

Repeal of the Corn Laws. Second Reform Bill. Irish Church Bill. National Education.

During the reign of Victoria, many important political events have engaged the attention of Parliament and the country. Of these, the first in order of time, if not in importance, was the establishment of the **Anti-Corn Law League** in Manchester, in 1838. This society had for its object the abolition of the duties which had been put upon the importation of foreign corn in order to 'protect' the

home-grower by keeping up the price of wheat. Of the many men who supported the principles of the League, two names stand very conspicuous, John Bright and Richard Cobden. Most of those engaged in the cultivation of the soil, the landowners and farmers, stoutly opposed the Anti-Corn-Law agitation, believing that the free importation of foreign grain would prove their ruin. But the principle of free-trade found such acceptance in the country, that when Sir Robert Peel succeeded Lord Melbourne as Prime Minister in 1841, he was compelled to grapple with the question. Some changes were made in the corn laws, but not sufficient to satisfy the supporters of the League. The subject continued to be agitated, until the potato blight of 1845, and the consequent famine in Ireland, convinced the premier that 'protective' duties on corn could no longer be maintained. He, consequently, introduced a Bill into Parliament repealing the corn-laws, retaining only a duty of one shilling per quarter, which passed both Houses by large majorities. At the same time, the duty on numerous articles underwent a reduction. The loss thus occasioned to the revenue was made up by the imposition of an **Income-tax**. This novel impost was limited to three years, in the hope that at the end of the time it might be dispensed with; but the upper and middle classes of society still continue to be saddled with this tax.

June 26, **1846** A.D.

Two days after the repeal of the corn laws, Sir Robert Peel, deserted by his Conservative friends, and opposed by the Whigs, resigned office, and was succeeded in the premiership by Lord John Russell. Under his administration, the principles of free trade were further extended, in 1849, by the repeal of the **Navigation Laws**, which for two centuries had kept the carrying trade of the country in English bottoms.

Early in 1852, Lord Russell's Government was succeeded by a Conservative Ministry under the Earl of Derby, with Mr. Benjamin Disraeli as Chancellor of the Exchequer; but before the close of the year, the new

premier, failing to obtain the support of the House of Commons, was obliged to resign. A Coalition Ministry, consisting of Peelites, Whigs, and Radicals, was then formed, under the leadership of the Earl of Aberdeen, with Mr. Gladstone as Chancellor of the Exchequer. The terrible sufferings of our troops in the Crimea during the winter brought the Aberdeen Cabinet into such bad repute that it was compelled, early in 1855, to make way for a more vigorous Administration under Lord Palmerston. This able statesman retained office till 1858, when, in consequence of an attempt to assassinate the Emperor of the French in Paris, he introduced a Bill in Parliament for amending the law relating to conspiracy against the lives of foreign sovereigns. Defeated on this measure, he resigned, and Lord Derby returned to power. About the same time, in answer to certain menaces of French officers against England, the volunteer movement was set on foot.

For several years past, the question of Parliamentary Reform had occupied the public attention, and the Whigs, having held out sundry promises of Reform, the new Government was compelled to do something in the matter. Lord Derby's attempt, however, to grapple with the question, was opposed in the Commons, and, consequently, he vacated office. (June 11, 1859.) During the short Conservative Administration, two important measures became law: one for the better government of Hindostan, by the abolition of the power of the East India Company, the other for the admission of Jews into Parliament. In accordance with the latter Bill, Baron Rothschild took his seat in the House of Commons as member for the City of London.

The Derby Ministry was succeeded by one under Lord Palmerston, who retained the seals of office until his death, in 1865. His place was then filled by Earl Russell, who had been raised to the peerage a few years before, while Mr. Gladstone undertook to lead the House of Commons. The new Government at once attempted to pass a moderate Reform Bill, but, meeting with defeat, it resigned, and Lord Derby became premier for the third time.

The Conservative Ministry, much to the surprise of their friends and the country, introduced a radical measure of Reform, in the hope of settling once for all this long-disputed question. The **second Reform Bill**, which the premier styled 'A leap in the dark,' gave the franchise in towns to all householders, conditional upon the payment of rates. Votes were also given to lodgers. Some of the large boroughs were allowed to return *three* members, in order that the opposing political parties in the large centres of population might each have a chance of being represented. The franchise in counties was reduced to a rental of 12*l.* On the assembling of the new Parliament in 1868, Lord Derby retired, through ill-health, from the premiership, and was succeeded by Mr. Disraeli. The proposal to disestablish and disendow the Irish Church, on the plea that it was the Church of the minority of the Irish people, was strenuously resisted by the new premier, who appealed to the voice of the country on this important matter. The elections returned to the House of Commons a majority pledged to overthrow Protestant ascendency in Ireland; and Mr. Disraeli, in consequence, made way for a Liberal Administration under Mr. Gladstone. (1868.)

1867 A.D.

The parliamentary session of 1869 was chiefly taken up in debating the disestablishment and disendowment of the Irish Church. The proposal was warmly contested in both Houses; and, in the Lords especially, the debates on the Opposition side were marked by rare force and eloquence. The desire to conciliate the Irish people, however, overcame the objections of the peers, and the Irish Church Bill became law. According to its provisions, the Church Establishment in Ireland ceased to exist on January 1, 1871.

In 1870, another effort was made to make Ireland contented by the passing of a Land Bill, with a view to put landlord and tenant on a better footing with each other.

During the same year, the question of **National Education** was ably handled by the ministry; and, through the exertions of Mr. Forster, the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, Parliament gave its

sanction to an educational measure, which will, no doubt, prove a great blessing to our country.

The reign of Queen Victoria is one of the brightest periods in English history. Abroad, our arms have been victorious over every foe; and, at home, by wise legislation, immense progress has been made in everything that tends to make a country great. Manufactures have multiplied, commerce has greatly increased, the arts and sciences have received the highest patronage and encouragement, literature has become widely diffused, and education has been improved and extended throughout all ranks of society. The Queen herself has been throughout her whole reign a bright example of every Christian virtue; and as sovereign, wife, and mother, she has shed lustre on the English name. Her Majesty, however, has not been without her troubles and trials. At the beginning of 1861, she followed her good and affectionate mother to the grave; and before the close of the year, a far greater bereavement awaited her in the death of her royal husband. Prince Albert died of typhoid fever, at Windsor, December 14, 1861. His loss was deeply felt by the whole nation, which had learnt to respect and admire him for his many virtues. He left an unbroken family of four sons and five daughters: (1) *Victoria*, married to Frederick William of Prussia, now the Imperial Prince of Germany; (2) *Albert Edward* Prince of Wales, married Princess Alexandra of Denmark; (3) *Alice Maud Mary*, married Prince Frederick Louis of Hesse Darmstadt; (4) *Alfred*, created Earl of Kent and Duke of Edinburgh; (5) *Helena*, married Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg; (6) *Louisa*, married the Marquis of Lorne; (7) *Arthur*; (8) *Leopold*; and (9) *Beatrice*.

Nine years before the Prince Consort's death, England's great soldier, the 'hero of a hundred fights,' went to his last resting-place. On September 14, 1852, Wellington died at Walmer Castle, at the age of eighty-three, and in the following November his coffin was laid in the crypt of St. Paul's Cathedral, near the tomb of Nelson.

Miscellaneous Facts.

In 1843, Wales was much disturbed by the **Rebekah riots.** The object of the rioters was the destruction of toll-gates, and they called themselves 'Rebekah's daughters,' from the passage in Genesis xxiv. 60, where is found a prayer that Rebekah's seed should possess the *gates* of their enemies. The men engaged in the riots dressed themselves in women's clothes.

The same year is memorable in Scotland for the disruption of the Established Church. A dispute about the right of presentation to livings caused a numerous and influential body to secede from the Establishment and found a Free Church.

In 1850, the Pope caused great excitement in England by the appointment of a Roman Catholic hierarchy, with territorial titles. The aggression was met by an **Ecclesiastical Titles Bill,** which made the assumption of such titles punishable by law. The Bill, however, became a dead letter, and has since been repealed.

The year 1851 will ever be remembered for the **Great Exhibition** of the Industry of all Nations. The credit of the idea is due to the Prince Consort, who devoted much of his time to ensure the success of the enterprise. A building constructed of iron and glass was designed by Sir Joseph Paxton, and erected in Hyde Park. The number of persons who visited the Exhibition is estimated at 7,000,000. The brilliant success of the undertaking led to similar exhibitions in other cities and countries. A second Exhibition was opened in London in 1862. The materials of the first have been used to construct the Crystal Palace now standing at Sydenham.

From the year 1861 to 1865, the cotton manufacture of England was paralysed by the civil war in America between the Northern and Southern States. Lancashire was the scene of great distress, consequent upon the stoppage of the mills. Throughout the whole country noble efforts were made to assist the distressed operatives, who bore

their sufferings with the greatest endurance. England narrowly escaped being drawn into the American quarrel, in consequence of the seizure by the Northerners of two Southern gentlemen on board the British steamer 'Trent' in the West Indies, but the surrender of the captives saved the country from war. The exploits of the Confederate ship 'Alabama,' which had been built on the Mersey, and had left the river by stratagem, created a bad feeling against England in the Northern States, and more than once threatened to cause a serious quarrel between the two countries. Early in 1871, a treaty was concluded at Washington by the English and American Governments to settle amicably all claims and disputes which arose during the civil war.

The war between France and Prussia, in 1870, excited much sympathy in Britain for the sick and wounded. Contributions, amounting to 300,000*l.*, were quickly raised to mitigate the horrors of war, and numerous volunteer nurses devoted themselves to succour the unhappy victims of a most terrible conflict. Prussia, at the head of united Germany, overran the northern half of France, captured Paris, and dictated most humiliating terms of peace. The defeat of the French armies cost Napoleon his throne, and France once more adopted a Republican Government. Germany, on the other hand, revived the empire overthrown by the first Napoleon, and conferred upon the victorious King of Prussia the title of Emperor of Germany.

Among the principal inventions and discoveries, &c. of the reign, may be mentioned: the first electric telegraph, invented by Wheatstone in 1837; the first steamboat, the '*Sirius*,' crossed the Atlantic from Cork to New York, in 1838; the penny post came into operation, chiefly through the exertions of Mr. Rowland Hill, in 1840; Thames Tunnel opened in 1843; submarine telegraph laid down between Dover and Calais, and Britannia Tubular Bridge stretched across the Menai Strait, in 1850; submarine telegraph from England to Ireland in 1852; discovery of the North-West Passage by Captain McClure in

1853; launch of the 'Great Eastern' on the Thames in 1858; the Ionian Islands ceded to Greece in 1863; the Rinderpest, or Cattle Plague, raged in England in 1865; the Atlantic Cable successfully laid in 1866.

LEADING AUTHORS UNDER VICTORIA.

POETS.

ROBERT SOUTHEY (1774–1843), a native of Bristol: one of the *Lake School* of poets: Poet-laureate in 1813; author of the poems 'Joan of Arc' and 'Thalaba;' wrote in prose 'The Life of Nelson,' &c.

THOMAS CAMPBELL (1774–1844), born in Glasgow: author of 'The Pleasures of Hope;' wrote also the inspiriting ballads 'The Battle of the Baltic' and 'Ye Mariners of England.'

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH (1770–1850), born at Cockermouth: one of England's great poets: founded the *Lake School* of poetry; Poet-laureate after Southey; chief works, 'The Excursion' and 'The White Doe of Rylstone.'

THOMAS MOORE (1779–1852), regarded as the national poet of Ireland; lived chiefly in London: author of 'Lalla Rookh,' 'The Irish Melodies,' and many lyric poems.

SAMUEL ROGERS (1762–1855), a London banker: chief poem, 'The Pleasures of Memory.'

SHERIDAN KNOWLES (1784–1862), a famous dramatist: wrote 'William Tell,' 'The Hunchback,' &c.

ALFRED TENNYSON (1810), the present Poet-laureate, born at Somerby, Lincolnshire: author of 'The Princess,' 'In Memoriam,' 'Idylls of the King,' &c.

PROSE WRITERS.

JOHN LINGARD (1771–1851), a Roman Catholic priest: author of a 'History of England' up to 1688; pensioned by the Queen for his literary labours.

JOHN M. KEMBLE (1807–1857), a historian: author of 'The Saxons in England.'

LORD MACAULAY (1800–1859), a famous historian: wrote a 'History of England,' chiefly comprising the seventeenth century; 'The Lays of Ancient Rome,' and several essays.

WILLIAM M. THACKERAY (1811–1863), born in India: a distinguished novelist; author of 'Vanity Fair,' 'Pendennis,' &c.

CHARLES DICKENS (1812–1870), a celebrated novelist: author of 'The Pickwick Papers, 'David Copperfield,' &c.

SIR ARCHIBALD ALISON (1792–1867), a Scotch lawyer: wrote 'History of Europe,' and 'History of the French Revolution.'

LORD LYTTON (1805–1873): statesman, novelist, and dramatist; author of the play 'Lady of Lyons,' and numerous novels.

THOMAS CARLYLE (1795), born in Dumfriesshire: an eccentric but clever writer; author of 'History of the French Revolution,' 'Frederick the Great,' &c.

BENJAMIN DISRAELI (1805), a distinguished statesman and novelist: author of 'Vivian Grey,' 'Lothair,' &c.

LEADING ARTISTS.

SIR DAVID WILKIE (1785–1841), a Scotch painter: chief works, 'Blind Fiddler,' and 'Knox Preaching before Queen Mary.'

SIR FRANCIS CHANTREY (1782–1848), a native of Derbyshire: a famous sculptor; chief work, monument of Two Sisters in Lichfield Cathedral.'

JOSEPH W. TURNER (1775–1851), a distinguished landscape painter: died in humble lodgings in London.

SIR CHARLES L. EASTLAKE (1793–1865), a great painter: became President of the Royal Academy; chief work, 'Christ weeping over Jerusalem.'

LEADING INVENTORS, &c.

GEORGE STEPHENSON (1781–1848), born at Wylaw, Northumberland: a cowherd in boyhood; became a great railway engineer; invented the locomotive engine. Father of **ROBERT STEPHENSON** (1803–1859), also a distinguished engineer: constructed the tubular bridge over the Menai Strait, and the Victoria Bridge over the River St. Lawrence.

SIR MARK ISAMBARD BRUNEL (1769–1849), a great engineer: constructed the Thames Tunnel. Father of **Mr. BRUNEL**, who made the Great Western Railway, and the 'Great Western' and 'Great Eastern' steamers.

SIR JOSEPH PAXTON (1803–1865), originally a landscape gardener: designed the building for the Great Exhibition of 1851, and the gardens, &c. of the Crystal Palace, at Sydenham.

MICHAEL FARADAY (1791–1867), a native of Newington, Surrey: apprenticed to a bookseller; became an eminent Chemist and Natural Philosopher; author of several scientific works.

SIR DAVID BREWSTER (1781–1868), born at Jedburgh: educated for the Scottish Church; distinguished in literature and science; famous for discoveries in optics; invented the kaleidoscope.

SIR JOHN HERSCHEL (1792–1871), born at Slough: only son of the great astronomer; distinguished in science; author of many scientific works.

SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE HANOVERIAN PERIOD.

Population. National Industry. Modes of Conveyance. Food. Dress. Dwellings. Amusements. Learning and Literature.

Population.—The census taken in 1801 gives the population of England and Wales as 8,892,536, thus showing that, during the eighteenth century, there had been an increase of about 3,000,000 souls. The census of 1871 gives a return of 22,704,108 people, or an increase since 1801 of 13,811,572. The total number of the population of the United Kingdom at the present time is 31,817,108. The rapid increase during the latter half of this period has occurred chiefly in the manufacturing districts and the metropolis. A flow of emigrants to the United States and British possessions has been continually going on throughout the whole period, and especially since the war of American Independence, and therefore this drain must be considered in estimating the prosperity of the country. The number of emigrants, from the year 1815 to 1869, is estimated at 6,756,697.

National Industry.—In all branches of industry our country has made gigantic progress during this period. The use of machinery has produced such a change in the employments of the people, and increased the productiveness of labour, that the men of the early part of the last century would not now recognise the England of their day, if they could rise from their graves. Agriculture, which then employed four-fifths of the working population, now engages the labour of only about one-tenth. The large manufacturing towns and sea-ports have absorbed the rural labourers, and provided them with very different work. During the first half of the last century, attention was

drawn to the large extent of waste and uncultivated land in the country, and measures were taken by Parliament to reclaim it, and, by the end of the year 1834, nearly 7,000,000 acres were brought under cultivation. Up to about the year 1763, sufficient corn was grown at home to supply the wants of the people, but after that date the increase of the population, in consequence of the growth of manufactures and commerce, necessitated the importation of corn. In 1869, we were supplied from abroad with corn to the value of 37,347,358*l.* The science of agriculture has kept pace with all other improvements, and Britain, at present, is famous for its farming.

The **woollen** manufacture, which hitherto had been the staple industry of the country, has now given place to that of cotton. At the beginning of the period, the woollen trade was protected and encouraged by Act of Parliament, and, thus fostered, it made some progress. In 1700, the value of woollen goods exported amounted to 3,000,000*l.*; at the end of a hundred years, the value was doubled; and in the year 1869, it had reached the sum of 22,625,190*l.* The improvement of the manufacture has called many towns into existence, especially in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and it is estimated that about 200,000 hands are employed in the trade.

The **cotton** manufacture has been wonderfully developed during this period. In the year 1720, the imports of raw cotton amounted to nearly 2,000,000 pounds weight; in 1800, it was about 56,000,000; and in 1869, it had reached the enormous figure of 1,220,809,856 lbs. The rapid growth of this manufacture is mainly due to the inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, and Cartwright, and the continued improvement of machinery. The seat of the trade is in Lancashire, where about 300,000 people find employment in the numerous cotton-mills of the county. The value of cotton goods exported is three times that of woollen.

The **silk** manufacture, which in the seventeenth century promised to take an important place in national industry, has made very little progress. Up to the year 1824, the

importation of foreign silkwas forbidden, for the purpose of encouraging, as it was thought, our home trade; but such protection was most injurious to the silk manufacture. In the time of Charles II., forty thousand persons were said to be employed as silk-throwsters, but in 1835 the estimated number of hands at work in 231 silk factories was about thirty thousand. Since the removal of the restrictions upon foreign silk, the manufacture has made considerable progress, and now employs, in its various branches, more than 100,000 persons.

The **linen** trade, until the last fifty years, has been in a languishing state. Ireland was the only place where it made any progress, and there it was encouraged by royal bounties up to the year 1830. Mills for flax-spinning were first erected in England at Darlington, about the close of the last century. At present, the chief seat of the manufacture is at Leeds and its immediate neighbourhood. Linen was long reckoned the staple branch of industry carried on in Scotland, but until the present century, its progress was very slow. We now export from the United Kingdom linen fabrics of the amount of nearly 10,000,000*l.*

In **hardware** manufacture, and in that of brass, copper, and plated wares, there has been an immense growth. Some idea of this fact may be given by comparing the present population of Birmingham, the centre of the trade, with what it was at the close of the Stuart period. Then it could only boast of about 4,000 souls; now it numbers nearly 350,000. The value of metal goods exported in 1869 reached the enormous value of 19,519,201*l.*

Another branch of industry which has risen to great importance in this period is that of **earthenware.** Before the year 1760, the 'Potteries' could produce nothing to vie with the stoneware products of France; but from that time the improvements introduced by Mr. Josiah Wedgwood gave such an impetus to the trade that it now occupies a foremost place among the industries of Great Britain. The numerous towns which are scattered over North Staffordshire, with their teeming population, bear witness to the progress of the stoneware manufacture.

Mining operations have developed the mineral wealth of the country to an enormous extent. The quantity of **iron** raised in 1740 was about 17,000 tons; in 1869, the amount was 5,445,757 tons. The progress of the iron manufacture in South Wales and Monmouthshire has been something extraordinary. Merthyr Tydvil, in the middle of the last century, was an insignificant village; it now contains a population of nearly 100,000 souls, all more or less dependent upon the iron trade. But the increase in the produce of our **coal-mines** is something fabulous. In 1780, the quantity of coal raised for general use was about 2,500 tons. In 1869, there were 2,900 collieries at work, and from their depths were raised, in that year, 107,427,557 tons. Besides the immense quantity of coal used for domestic consumption and home manufactures, the value of that exported is more than 5,000,000*l.*

Of the remaining minerals, the greatest improvement has been in the production of **salt.** The beds of rock-salt found in Cheshire at the close of the seventeenth century have furnished annually thousands of tons of this important mineral, which we now export in large quantities. It is unnecessary to speak of the numerous other branches of industry which have grown into importance since the Stuart times; but to show how flourishing and immense our commerce is, it is sufficient to state that the present annual value of our imports and exports is 532,475,266*l.*

Modes of Conveyance.—At the beginning of the period, the public roads still continued in a wretched condition. Even as late as 1770, the highways in some districts were scarcely passable. There were ruts four feet deep, and floating with mud, on some roads, even in summer; we can imagine, then, what their plight was in winter. The carriage of goods was still done chiefly by pack-horses; but a better state of things arose with the development of our manufactures. The improvement of the public roads towards the close of the last century brought out improved carriages, and a mail-coach could run in eight hours a distance which formerly took nineteen.

The necessity of having better means of communication

between the manufacturing towns led to the formation of **canals**, which may be said to date their origin from an Act passed in 1755 to make a canal eleven miles long at Sankey-brook, Lancashire. Four years later, the Duke of Bridge-water obtained the consent of Parliament to construct those great works which has made his name and that of his great engineer, Brindley, illustrious. The numerous canals since constructed, together with the improvement of navigable rivers, have given us an inland navigation of more than 4,000 miles in extent.

The rapid growth of trade and manufactures in the present century brought our railways into existence. Long before, in some of the Newcastle colliery districts, rails made of timber had been in use, and in 1767 the first experiment was made of substituting iron for wood. In 1801, the first Act of Parliament was passed for making a public railway between Wandsworth and Croydon, but the railway of that day was nothing like the great works which now extend through the country. The first modern railway was opened between Liverpool and Manchester in 1830. The projectors scarcely gave a thought to the conveyance of passengers; their chief object was the carriage of goods between those rapidly-rising towns. The work, thus begun, was speedily taken up in other parts, and by the year 1867 a network of railways, 14,247 miles in extent, had been made in Great Britain. And side by side with the long line of rails have been raised **telegraph wires**, 80,466 miles in length, by which instant communication can be held between the most distant towns.

Means of communication with foreign countries have progressed in a wonderful manner. Since the first steamboat plied on the Clyde in 1811, the progress of steam navigation has been most rapid. In 1836, the number of steam-vessels under the English flag was 600; at the present time there are almost three times as many. The number of vessels of all kinds engaged in home and foreign trade amounted in 1869 to 21,881, manned by 195,490 men, and having a tonnage of 5,557,303 tons.

Food.—The character of the food used by the working classes has changed very much since the accession of

George I. Wages increased as the country prospered, and many things which in former times were regarded as great luxuries are now, and have been for years, within the reach of the labouring classes. Rye bread, once the working man's fare, gradually disappeared from his table; and by the time George III. ascended the throne, five-eighths of the people enjoyed the luxury of good wheaten bread. Vegetables, too, as beans and peas, became common, and the potato especially became a favourite article of diet. Animal food was cheap; as late as 1760, beef and mutton could be bought for $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ or $3d.$ per lb. The working classes, therefore, in the last century were better off with regard to animal food than those of the present day. Tea and coffee gradually came into general use, as substitutes for beer, at breakfast and tea.

Dress.—Until the time of the French Revolution, male costume underwent little change. Gentlemen wore a square-cut coat of silk or velvet, with stiffened shirts; a waistcoat, with large flaps reaching nearly to the knee; lace ruffles, knee-breeches, three-cornered cocked hats, and shoes with high red heels and buckles of silver, or precious stones. At his side dangled a sword, which was often drawn to settle a quarrel, and his pocket usually contained a silver box full of scented snuff. About the close of the last century the whole costume, even to the curled wig, underwent a change. Ruffles made way for shirt-collars; the breeches gave place to pantaloons and Hessian boots; the three-cornered hat was superseded by one round in shape. These in their turn were followed by loose trousers, short boot, and military frock with brass buttons. The sword was gradually laid aside in favour of a walking-cane, much to the safety of the general public.

The fashion of ladies' costume was continually changing. The hoop, however, kept in use for a long time. In the matter of headdress there was always something new. At first, small frilled caps with gipsy hats were the rage; then followed the old fashion of combing the hair up to the height of a foot or eighteen inches, and decking it with ribbons and feathers, as in our own day. In the reign of George IV., the old hoop was laid aside in favour of short

skirts, and high-heeled shoes. The bonnet passed from gipsy shape to that of a coal-scuttle, which was the favourite fashion when Her Majesty the Queen ascended the throne. In the first half of the period, both ladies and gentlemen powdered their hair, and the former sex were in the habit of spotting their faces over with patches of black plaster.

The sedan-chair was the fashionable mode of conveyance in the last century, and at night its occupant was lighted home by link-boys.

Dwellings.—The houses of rich and poor have undergone great improvement. Under the first Georges, the residences of the upper classes showed little taste. The building was generally of an oblong shape, with numerous plain-sashed windows, and scarcely any ornament except a portico over the front entrance. The stables and kennels remained unpleasantly near the house, and flower-gardens were rare. In later times, elegant mansions, fitted up with every luxury and refinement, testify to the improved taste of the wealthier classes. The dwellings of the lower orders, too, have been so improved in every way that, with the exception of the crowded alleys of our manufacturing and sea-port towns, a working man is as well housed now as a well-to-do yeoman in the Stuart times, and, with regard to furniture, much better off than a gentleman of Elizabeth's day.

Amusements.—The rough sport of baiting bulls, bears, and badgers soon died out; but pugilism and cock-fighting kept their ground till within comparatively recent times. It became fashionable to resort for amusement to Assembly Rooms. Ranelagh in Chelsea and Vauxhall were famous places of resort in the metropolis, and were the scenes of much vice and dissipation. In the early part of the period the system of Clubs took its origin. Gambling was frightfully common. Gentlemen spent their leisure at the gaming table in their clubs, and ladies whiled away their evenings at whist parties where the stakes were oftentimes ruinously high. Drunkenness prevailed amongst all classes to a shocking extent. Gentlemen sat so long over their wine after dinner, that they were seldom fit to join the ladies, and their language was not fashionable unless

well interlarded with obscene oaths. During the last fifty years, an entire change has fortunately taken place in the habits of good society, and a gentleman of the old school would not now be tolerated in decent company. Gin-shops were the bane of the working classes in the last century. The lower orders copied their betters so well, that the latter, ashamed and alarmed at the prevailing vice, agitated the matter in Parliament as early as 1736, and called for remedial measures. When publicans enticed customers with words like these painted outside their houses—'You may here get drunk for a penny, dead drunk for twopence, and have clean straw for nothing,' the interference of the legislature was certainly needed. Parliamentary restrictions, however, failed to do any good so long as the upper classes continued to set a bad example. The theatres, which retained all the profligacy of the days of Charles II., were much patronised by all ranks of society. Singing was greatly encouraged, and became a fashionable amusement at evening parties, though the words of the song were oftentimes unfit for ears polite. The Italian Opera was introduced at the beginning of the period, and shortly after an English opera was established. The great musician, Handel, a native of Saxony, took up his abode in England, but some years passed away before his sublime compositions were properly appreciated.

Learning and Literature.—While England has been making gigantic strides in manufactures and commerce, she has not been unmindful of learning and literature. Education, it is true, until the present century, made but little progress, yet the history of our country, under the Brunswick dynasty, is distinguished by a host of names of men famous in literature and science. Commercial activity seems to have quickened intellectual pursuits, and every field of thought and inquiry is explored with earnestness, diligence, and determination. A remarkable feature of the period is the growth of the influence of the Press, which has been called the Fourth Estate of the Realm. In no country in the world is the Press so ably conducted as in the United Kingdom. Much of the literary talent of the day is employed in contributing to the innumerable newspapers and

periodicals, which circulate far and wide, and find diligent readers even in the lowest walks of life. In Science, too, our country now occupies a foremost place, and in Art also it holds no mean position. The Universities have been thrown open to men of all creeds; greater facilities are offered to persons of humble means to take advantage of our ancient seats of learning; and Christian men and women are working with might and main to bring the blessings of education within the reach of the poorest in the land.

The British Constitution.

The British Constitution is a **Limited Monarchy**, consisting of the Sovereign and what are called 'the Three Estates of the Realm,' the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons. It is thus a combination of a pure monarchy, oligarchy, and a republic; and each of these is so well balanced as to make the British Constitution the envy of the world.

The supreme *legislative* power is vested in the Parliament; while the *executive* power rests with the Sovereign, who, however, is guided by the Ministry. Thus we possess the stability of a monarchy with all the advantages of a republic.

The office of **Sovereign** is hereditary, and may fall to a male or female. The monarch must be a Protestant; even marriage with a Roman Catholic would be followed by forfeiture of the throne. The royal person is regarded as sacred, and any attempt to compass the destruction of the Sovereign or his heirs, is called high treason, and is punishable with death.

The royal prerogatives are (1) to convoke, prorogue, or dissolve Parliament; (2) to make war or peace, and conclude treaties with foreign States; (3) to extend mercy or pardon to criminals; (4) to create all ranks of nobility, and appoint to all posts in the army and navy; (5) to coin money. The Sovereign, though said to be above the law, is bound as much as his subjects to keep the laws.

The royal household is maintained by an allowance called the **Civil List**, which now amounts to 385,000*l.* per

annum. On the accession of Queen Victoria, the crown lands were given up to the nation for the Civil List; and the sum then fixed, in lieu of the royal domains, was much less than that voted for previous sovereigns. George I., for example, received 1,000,000*l.*

Next to the Crown comes the **House of Lords**, which holds a position between Sovereign and People. The members of the Upper House are also called *Peers*, of which there are two kinds, *Spiritual* and *Temporal*. The Lords Spiritual consist of twenty-six prelates of the Church of England. Previous to the disestablishment of the Irish Church, four Irish bishops sat in the House of Lords. The number of lords temporal is unlimited, and may be increased at the sovereign's pleasure. There are five ranks of peers—dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons. Sixteen Scottish lords are elected for each Parliament, and twenty-eight Irish peers are elected for life. The members of the Upper House, during the session of 1870, numbered 471. The House of Lords may be considered a hereditary body. It is presided over by the Lord Chancellor, whose chair of office is called the *Woolsack*. It is the highest Law Court in the kingdom, and appeals may be made to it from all inferior Courts. The members may vote by proxy, and three are sufficient to form a 'House' for the transaction of business. A peer cannot be arrested for debt; and if accused of treason or felony, can only be tried by his peers.

The **House of Commons** contains 652 members, who are returned by the counties, cities, boroughs, and the Universities. England and Wales are represented by 489, Scotland by 60, and Ireland by 103. The last-mentioned country, in proportion to its taxation, has by far a greater representation than either of the former. The Lower House has the power of granting or withholding supplies, and thus it can effectually control the government. It cannot sit longer than seven years; and a new one must be summoned within six months after the accession of a new Sovereign. The chairman of the House is called the **Speaker**, who receives a salary of 6,000*l.* per annum, and is usually made a peer

when he retires from office. Forty members of the Commons form a *quorum*.

To make a law, the three estates of the realm must agree. Proposing a law is called bringing in a Bill, and this may be done in either House. Bills, however, which relate to taxation of the people must originate in the House of Commons. Before any proposed measure can become the law of the land, it has to pass through the following stages in both Houses: (1) A motion is made to introduce the Bill; and it is read a first time; (2) It is read a second time; (3) it is then committed or referred to a committee of the whole House, to be considered clause by clause; (4) it is read a third time. When a Bill has been successfully carried through these stages, it only requires the assent of the Sovereign, whose signature may be given in person or by proxy, and an Act of Parliament then becomes law.

The Crown is assisted in the executive government by the **Privy Council** and the **Cabinet.** The former is a very ancient institution, and consists of persons of eminence and ability appointed by the Sovereign. The members are dignified with the title of 'Right Honourable.' They are only summoned at important crises in public affairs; the greater part of their work is done by the Cabinet, which may be considered as a Committee of the Privy Council. Other committees of this ancient body are charged with the supervision of National Education, the Poor Laws, Public Health, &c. The Cabinet consists of the heads of the various departments of government, selected by the Sovereign's chief adviser, who is called the Prime Minister, or First Lord of the Treasury. This important council is called the Cabinet, because it was originally made up of such members of the Privy Council who were privileged to confer with the King in his *cabinet* or private room. The government of the country practically rests with this body, which only exists as long as it can command a majority in the House of Commons. The Cabinet usually consists of the following persons:—

The First Lord of the Treasury, or the Premier.
The Lord Chancellor.
Lord President of the Council.

Lord Privy Seal.
Chancellor of the Exchequer.
First Lord of the Admiralty.
The Secretary for Foreign Affairs.
" " Home Affairs.
" " War Department.
" " India.
" " Ireland.
" " Colonies.
President of the Board of Trade.
" " Poor Law Board.
Postmaster-General.
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

For the administration of justice, there are seventeen judges, who sit during term time at Westminster, in the Courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, and Chancery. The judges also make circuits twice a year throughout the kingdom, to hear and decide important civil and criminal causes at Assizes. In Scotland, the chief tribunals are the Court of Session and the High Court of Justiciary.

The Revenue and Expenditure for the year ending March 31, 1870, are as follows:—

Revenue.	
Customs	£23,569,892
Excise	22,605,285
Stamps	9,545,751
Taxes: Land and Assessed Property & Income	14,794,363
Post Office	4,687,260
Crown Lands	447,723
Telegraph Service	107,479
Miscellaneous	3,205,252
Gross Revenue,	£78,960,005

Expenditure.	
Interest on National Debt	£27,077,529
Civil List	405,941
Annuities, Pensions, Salaries, Courts of Justice, &c.	1,324,190
Army	13,565,400
Navy	9,757,290
Abyssinian Expedition	1,300,000
Civil Service: Revenue Departments, Telegraph, Post Office, Packet Service	15,458,367
Total	68,864,748
Fortifications	200,000
Gross Expenditure,	£69,064,748

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

	How acquired.	*Date.* A.D.
Europe:		
Gibraltar	Captured from Spain	1704
Heligoland	„ „ Denmark	1807
Malta and Gozo	„ „ France	1800
Channel Islands	Norman Conquest	1066
Isle of Man	Purchase, from the Duke of Athol	1825
Asia:		
Hindostan	Settlement and conquest	1648–1856
Ceylon	Captured from Holland	1796
Burmese Colonies	Conquest	1826–53
Malacca	Exchange	1824
Penang	Purchase	1785–1802
Singapore	„	1819
Aden	Conquest	1838
Labuan	Cession	1847
Hong Kong	„	1842
Cyprus	„	1878
Africa:		
Gambia	Settlement	1631
Gold Coast	„	1661
St. Helena	Captured from the Dutch	1651
Sierra Leone	Settlement	1787
Cape of Good Hope	Captured from the Dutch	1806
Mauritius	„ „ French	1810
Ascension	Settlement	1815
Natal	„	1838
Lagos	Cession	1861
Transvaal	Annexation	1877
America:		
Newfoundland	Settlement	1497
Hudson's Bay Territory	„	„
Bermuda	„	1609
New Brunswick, Nova Scotia	Ceded by France	1713

	How acquired.	*Date.* A.D.
America (*continued*):		
Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island	Captured from France	1758
Canada	„ „	1759
British Columbia	Settlement	1793
Honduras	Cession	1763
British Guiana	Captured from Holland	1803
Falkland Islands	Cession	1837
West Indies:		
Barbadoes	Settlement	1605
St. Kitts	„	1623
Nevis	„	1628
Bahamas	„	1629
Turk's Island	„	1629
Antigua, Montserrat	„	1632
Jamaica	Captured from Spain	1655
Grenada, St. Vincent, Tobago	„ France	1762
Dominica	„ „	1783
Trinidad	„ Spain	1797
St. Lucia	„ France	1803
Australasia:		
New South Wales	Settlement	1788
Australia, West	„	1829
„ South	„	1834
„ North	„	1838
Victoria	„	1837
Queensland	„	1859
Tasmania	„	1803
New Zealand	„	1839
Polynesia:		
Fiji Islands	Cession	1874

LEADING DATES OF THE HANOVERIAN PERIOD.

GENERAL EVENTS.

	A.D.	
The South Sea Bubble	1720	George I.
Resignation of Walpole	1742	George II.
New Style of Reckoning Time	1752	„
Execution of Admiral Byng	1757	„
Bridgewater Canal commenced	1758	„
Arrest of John Wilkes	1763	George III.
Declaration of American Independence	1776	„
The Gordon Riots in London	1780	„
Trial of Warren Hastings	1788	„
The French Revolution began	1789	„
Irish Rebellion	1798	„
Death of Nelson	1805	„
Prince of Wales made Regent	1811	„
Princess Charlotte died	1817	„
Trial of Queen Caroline	1820	George IV.
First English Railway opened	1830	William IV.
Slavery abolished in British Colonies	1833	„
Rebellion in Canada	1837	Victoria.
The O'Connell Trials	1844	„
The Railway Panic	1847	„
The Great Exhibition in Hyde Park	1851	„
Death of Wellington	1852	„
The Indian Mutiny	1857	„
The Volunteer Movement commenced	1859	„
Death of the Prince Consort	1861	„
The Cotton Famine	1862	„
Marriage of the Prince of Wales	1863	„
The Cattle Plague	1865	„
The Atlantic Cable successfully laid	1866	„

CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES.

The Riot Act	1715	George I.
The Septennial Act	1716	„
The American Stamp Act	1765	George III.

	A.D.	
Tax laid upon Tea, Glass, &c. in America	1767	George III.
Union of Great Britain and Ireland	1801	„
Test Corporation Act repealed	1828	George IV.
Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill	1829	„
First Reform Bill	1832	William IV.
Municipal Reform Bill	1836	„
The Corn Laws repealed	1846	Victoria.
Navigation Laws repealed	1849	„
East India Company abolished	1858	„
Jews admitted to Parliament	„	„
The Second Reform Bill passed	1867	„
The Irish Church Bill passed	1869	„
National Education Bill	1870	„
The Irish Land Bill	1870	„

CHANGES OF DOMINION, ETC.

Hanover united with England	1714	George I.
Bengal conquered	1757	George II.
Canada „	1760	„
American Independence acknowledged	1783	George III.
Malta captured	1800	„
Cape of Good Hope	1806	„
Hanover separated from England	1837	Victoria.
Hong Kong acquired	1843	„
Ionian Islands surrendered to Greece	1863	„

WARS, BATTLES, TREATIES.

James the Pretender in Scotland	1715	George I.
War with Spain	1718	„
Spaniards defeated off Cape Passaro	„	„
Battle of Dettingen	1743	George II.
„ Fontenoy	1745	„
Charles Edward lands in Scotland	1745	„
Battle of Culloden	1746	„
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle	1748	„
The Seven Years' War began	1756	„

	A.D.	
Battle of Plassey	1757	George II.
St. Malo and Cherbourg destroyed by an English Fleet	1758	„
Hawke's Victory in Quiberon Bay .	1759	„
Battle of the Heights of Abraham .	„	„
First Peace of Paris . . .	1763	George III.

American War of Independence:

Attack upon Concord . . .	1775	„
Skirmish at Lexington . . .	„	„
Battle of Bunker's Hill . .	„	„
„ Brooklyn . . .	1776	„
„ Brandywine . . .	1777	„
Burgoyne surrenders at Saratoga	„	„
Cornwallis surrenders at York Town	1781	„
Treaty of Versailles . . .	1783	„
Siege of Gibraltar . . .	1779–1783	„
War of the French Revolution began	1793	„
French Fleet defeated off Ushant .	1794	„
Battle off Cape St. Vincent . .	1797	„
„ of the Nile	1798	„
Bombardment of Copenhagen . .	1801	„
Treaty of Amiens	1802	„
Battle of Trafalgar	1805	„

The Peninsular War:

Battle of Roliça	1808	„
Convention of Cintra . . .	„	„
Battle of Corunna	1809	„
„ Talavera . . .	„	„
„ Busaco	1810	„
„ Barossa . . .	„	„
„ Fuentes d'Onoro . .	1811	„
„ Albuera	„	„
Capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz	1812	„
Battle of Salamanca . . .	„	„
„ Vittoria	1813	„
„ Orthes „ Toulouse	1814	„

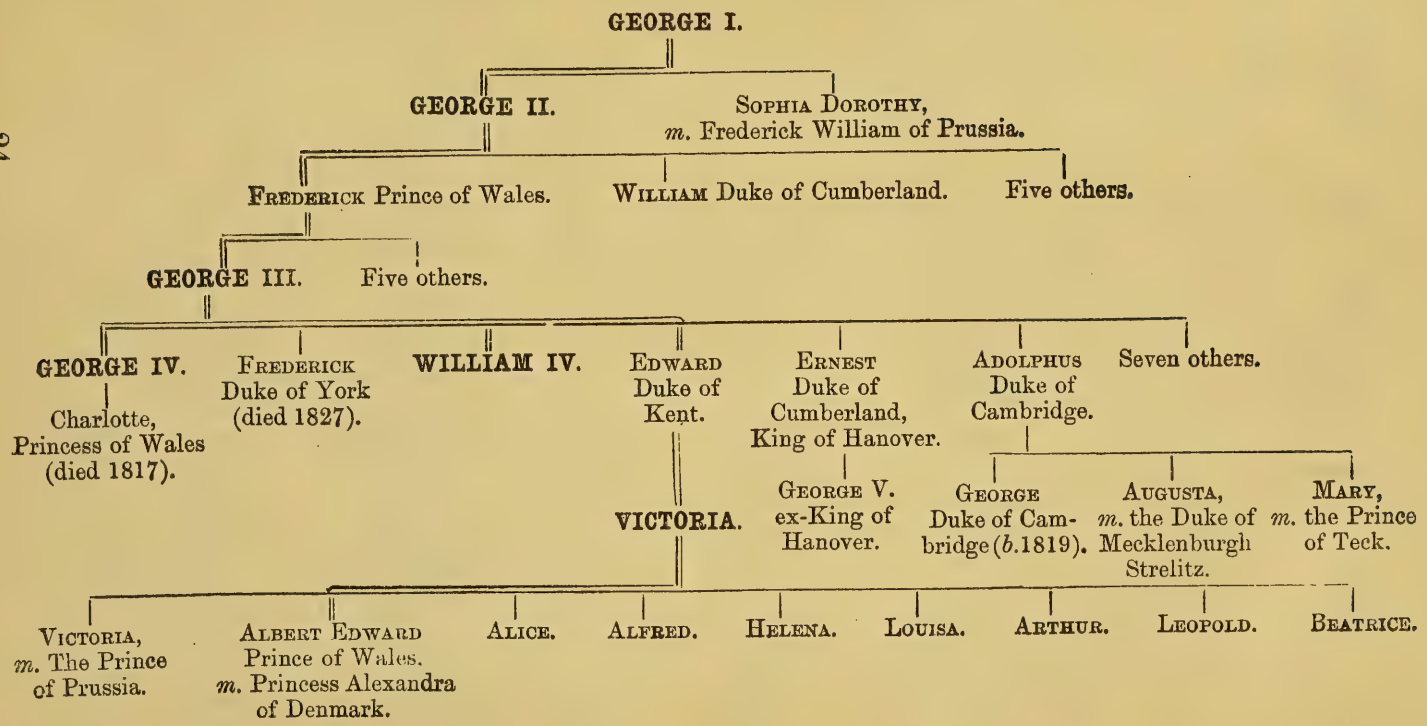
	A.D.	
War with the United States	1812–14	George III.
Treaty of Ghent	1814	„
Battle of Waterloo	1815	„
Second Peace of Paris	„	„
Algiers bombarded	1816	„
Battle of Navarino	1827	George IV.
„ Aliwal	1846	Victoria.
„ Sobraon	„	„
„ Chillianwalla	1849	„
„ Goojerat	„	„
The Crimean War begins	1854	„
The Battle of Alma	„	„
„ Balaklava	„	„
„ Inkermann	„	„
Capture of Sebastopol	1855	„
Peace made at Paris	1856	„
War with China	1860	„
Abyssinian War	1868	„

HANOVERIAN LINE.

1714 A.D.—

	A.D.		
George I. (great-grandson of James I.)	1714	Reigned	13 years
George II. (son) . . .	1727	„	33 „
George III. (grandson) . .	1760	„	60 „
George IV. (son) . . .	1820	„	10 „
William IV. (brother) . .	1830	„	7 „
Victoria (niece)	1837		

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.



WORKS ON ENGLISH HISTORY.

A History of England

In the Eighteenth Century. By WILLIAM EDWARD HARTPOLE LECKY, author of "History of the Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe," "History of European Morals, from Augustus to Charlemagne," etc. 2 vols., 12mo. Cloth, $5.00.

"No more important book has appeared of late years than this history, uniting as it does so engrossing a subject with so vital an object. . . . We say, again, that Mr. Lecky has made his mark upon our time by his careful and fascinating book."—*New York Times.*

"On every ground which should render a history of eighteenth-century England precious to thinking men, Mr. Lecky's work may be commended. The materials accumulated in these volumes attest an industry more strenuous and comprehensive than that exhibited by Froude or by Macaulay. But it is his supreme merit that he leaves on the reader's mind a conviction that he not only possesses the acuteness which can discern the truth, but the unflinching purpose of truth-telling."—*New York Sun.*

History of England,

From the Accession of James II. By Lord MACAULAY. New and standard edition. With Steel Portrait. 5 vols., 12mo. Cloth, extra, per set, $5.00.

The English Reformation:

How it came about, and why we should uphold it. By CUNNINGHAM GEIKIE, D. D., author of "The Life and Words of Christ." With a Preface by the author for the American edition. 1 vol., 12mo. Cloth. Price, $2.00.

"Dr. Geikie's work sustains the reputation which his 'Life and Words' had given him as a clear historical writer. It is impossible to comprehend the conflicts for spiritual liberty of the present without tracing them back to their origin in the past; and there is no single volume which will better enable us to do this than Dr. Geikie's 'History of the English Reformation."—*N. Y. Christian Union.*

"His grouping of facts is often masterly, his style is bold and incisive, and his sketches of eventful periods or eminent personages are vivid and graphic."—*Harper's New Monthly Magazine.*

Child's History of England.

By CHARLES DICKENS. Forming one of Chapman & Hall's Household Edition of Charles Dickens's Works. With Illustrations. Paper cover, 75 cents; cloth, $1.25.

D. APPLETON & CO., Publishers,

549 & 551 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

PRIMERS

IN SCIENCE, HISTORY, AND LITERATURE.

18mo. . . . Flexible cloth, 45 cents each.

I.—Edited by Professors HUXLEY, ROSCOE, and BALFOUR STEWART.

SCIENCE PRIMERS.

Chemistry.....H. E. Roscoe.
Physics.....Balfour Stewart.
Physical Geography..A. Geikie.
Geology.....A. Geikie.
Physiology.....M. Foster.
Astronomy.....J. N. Lockyer
Botany.....J. D. Hooker.
Logic.....W. S. Jevons.
Inventional Geometry....W. G. Spencer.
Pianoforte.....Franklin Taylor.
Political Economy, W. S. Jevons.

II.—Edited by J. R. GREEN, M. A., *Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford.*

HISTORY PRIMERS.

Greece.....C. A. Fyffe.
Rome.....M. Creighton.
Europe.....E. A. Freeman.
Old Greek Life....J. P. Mahaffy.
Roman Antiquities.....A. S. Wilkins.
Geography.....George Grove.

III.—Edited by J. R. GREEN, M. A.

LITERATURE PRIMERS.

English Grammar.....R. Morris.
English Literature.....Stopford Brooke.
Philology.....J. Peile.
Classical Geography.....M. F. Tozer.
Shakespeare.....E. Dowden.
Studies in Bryant.....J. Alden.
Greek Literature.....R. C. Jebb.
English Grammar Exercises, R. Morris.
Homer.....W. E. Gladstone.
English Composition..... ...J. Nichol.

(Others in preparation.)

The object of these primers is to convey information in such a manner as to make it both intelligible and interesting to very young pupils, and so to discipline their minds as to incline them to more systematic after-studies. In the Science Series some simple experiments have been devised, leading up to the chief truths of each science. By this means the pupil's interest is excited, and the memory is impressed so as to retain without difficulty the facts brought under observation. The woodcuts which illustrate these primers serve the same purpose, embellishing and explaining the text at the same time.

D. APPLETON & CO., 549 & 551 *Broadway, New York.*

APPLETONS' SCHOOL READERS,

CONSISTING OF FIVE BOOKS.

BY

W. T. HARRIS, LL.D., *Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.*

A. J. RICKOFF, A.M., *Superintendent of Instruction, Cleveland, O.*

MARK BAILEY, A.M., *Instructor in Elocution, Yale College.*

	RETAIL PRICES.
APPLETONS' FIRST READER	$0 25
APPLETONS' SECOND READER	40
APPLETONS' THIRD READER	52
APPLETONS' FOURTH READER	70
APPLETONS' FIFTH READER	1 25

CHIEF MERITS.

These Readers, while avoiding extremes and one-sided tendencies, combine into one harmonious whole the several results desirable to be attained in a series of school reading-books. These include good pictorial illustrations, a combination of the word and phonic methods, careful grading, drill on the peculiar combinations of letters that represent vowel-sounds, correct spelling, exercises well arranged for the pupil's preparation by himself (so that he shall learn the great lessons of self-help, self-dependence, the habit of application), exercises that develop a practical command of correct forms of expression, good literary taste, close critical power of thought, and ability to interpret the entire meaning of the language of others.

THE AUTHORS.

The high rank which the authors have attained in the educational field and their long and successful experience in practical school-work especially fit them for the preparation of text-books that will embody all the best elements of modern educative ideas. In the schools of St. Louis and Cleveland, over which two of them have long presided, the subject of reading has received more than usual attention, and with results that have established for them a wide reputation for superior elocutionary discipline and accomplishments. Feeling the need of a series of reading-books harmonizing in all respects with the modes of instruction growing out of their long tentative work, they have carefully prepared these volumes in the belief that the special features enumerated will commend them to practical teachers everywhere.

Of Professor Bailey, Instructor of Elocution in Yale College, it is needless to speak, for he is known throughout the Union as being without a peer in his profession. *His methods make natural, not mechanical readers.*

D. APPLETON & CO., 549 & 551 *Broadway, New York.*

THE

DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

THE OLD ENGLISH PERIOD.

By Brother AZARIAS,

Professor of English Literature in Rock Hill College, Maryland.

1 vol., 12mo. Cloth. Price, $1.25.

"In some respects the author has written a text-book superior to any we know now in use. There are few writers so well prepared in what might be termed the technique of Old English history and literature. His chapter on the Kelt and Teuton is admirable."—*New York Times.*

"The work will commend itself to notice for its concise and agreeable style, its logical method, and the philosophic and poetic, as well as historical, treatment of theme. The author is master of his subject."—*Providence Journal.*

"The author has exhibited great skill in presenting to the reader a clear and correct view of the literature and condition of things in England at that remote age, and the work is one of special interest."—*Boston Post.*

"A valuable text-book."—*Boston Globe.*

"A work of remarkable interest."—*Boston Evening Transcript.*

"A book of genuine literary interest and value."—*Cleveland Herald.*

"Within its covers there is a wealth of erudition, research, and scholarly labor, which places the book beside those of Wright, Spalding, and Craik. The English of the writer is a model for clearness and point."—*Utica Daily Observer.*

"One of the most thorough and best-arranged books on the subject that we have seen."—*Troy Press.*

"The literature of England was born and growing ages before William of Normandy set foot in England. The work before us proves this. It shows the origin and sources of Old English Literature, the elements that entered into it, its ruling ideas and character, its gradual growth and development up to the Norman Conquest. It is a work of original and laborious research, containing not crude materials, but the mature results of careful, discriminating analysis and profound study and reflection."—*The Catholic Standard.*

Sent by mail, post-paid, to any address in the United States, on receipt of price.

D. APPLETON & CO., Publishers,

549 & 551 Broadway, New York.

CLASSICAL WRITERS.

Edited by JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

16mo. Flexible cloth. - - - Price, 60 cents.

UNDER the above title, Messrs. D. APPLETON & Co. are issuing a series of small volumes upon some of the principal classical and English writers, whose works form subjects of study in our colleges, or which are read by the general public concerned in classical and English literature for its own sake. As the object of the series is educational, care is taken to impart information in a systematic and thorough way, while an intelligent interest in the writers and their works is sought to be aroused by a clear and attractive style of treatment. Classical authors especially have too long been regarded as mere instruments for teaching pupils the principles of grammar and language, while the personality of the men themselves and the circumstances under which they wrote have been kept in the background. Against such an irrational and one-sided method of education the present series is a protest.

It is a principle of the series that, by careful selection of authors, the best scholars in each department shall have the opportunity of speaking directly to students and readers, each on the subject which he has made his own.

The following volumes are in preparation:

ENGLISH.

MILTON.....**Rev. Stopford Brooke.** [*Ready.*
BACON.....**Rev. Dr. Abbott.**
SPENSER.....**Professor J. W. Hales.**
CHAUCER.....**F. J. Furnivall.**

GREEK.

HERODOTUS.....**Professor Bryce.**
SOPHOCLES.....**Professor Lewis Campbell.**
DEMOSTHENES.....**S. H. Butcher, M. A.**
EURIPIDES.....**Professor Mahaffy.** [*Ready.*

LATIN.

VIRGIL.....**Professor Nettleship.**
HORACE.....**T. H. Ward, M. A.**
CICERO.....**Professor A. S. Wilkins.**
LIVY.....**W. W. Capes, M. A.**

Other volumes to follow.

D. APPLETON & CO., NEW YORK.

EARLY CHRISTIAN
LITERATURE PRIMERS.

EDITED BY

Professor GEORGE PARK FISHER, D. D.

The "Early Christian Literature Primers" will embody, in a few small and inexpensive volumes, the substance of the characteristic works of the great Fathers of the Church. The plan recognizes four groups of works:

1. *The Apostolic Fathers, and the Apologists*, A. D. 95–180.
2. *The Fathers of the Third Century*, A. D. 180–325.
3. *The Post-Nicene Greek Fathers*, A. D. 325–750.
4. *The Post-Nicene Latin Fathers*, A. D. 325–590.

These groups are to be embraced in four books. In the first book are given exact translations of the principal works of the Apostolic Fathers and the Apologists, preceded by introductions upon the writings of the period, and by sketches of the several authors. Nearly every known author of the period is mentioned, and his place pointed out. Only genuine works, as translated from the latest critical texts, have been admitted, and of these a very large part have been brought in.

BY REV. GEORGE A. JACKSON.

THE APOSTOLIC FATHERS, AND THE APOLOGISTS.

A. D. 95–180.

CONTENTS: Introduction—The Earlier Patristic Writings—THE APOSTOLIC FATHERS—Clement of Rome—Sketch, Epistle to Corinthians, and Clementine Literature; Ignatius—Sketch, and Epistle to Romans, Ephesians, and Polycarp; Polycarp—Sketch, and Epistle to Philippians; Barnabas—Sketch, and Epistle. Associated Authors. Hermas—Sketch, and the Shepherd; Papias—Sketch, and Fragments.

THE APOLOGISTS.—Introductory Sketch—Notice, and Epistle to Diognetus; Justin—Sketch, First Apology, and Synopsis of Dialogue with Trypho; Author of Muratorian Fragment, and the Fragment; Melito—Sketch, and Fragment; Athenagoras—Sketch, Chapters from Mission about Christians, and Final Argument on the Resurrection.

In 16mo. Cloth. Price, 60 cents.

[NOW READY.]

D. APPLETON & CO., PUBLISHERS, 549 & 551 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

EARLY CHRISTIAN

LITERATURE PRIMERS.

EDITED BY

Professor GEORGE PARK FISHER, D. D.

IN PREPARATION.

THE FATHERS OF THE THIRD CENTURY.

CONTENTS: Introduction (A. D. 180–325), on the Influence of Origen in the East and of Cyprian in the West—Irenæus—Hippolytus—Clement of Alexandria—Origen—Methodius—Tertullian—Cyprian.

THE POST-NICENE GREEK FATHERS.

CONTENTS: Introduction (A. D. 325–750), on the Schools of Alexandria and Antioch—Eusebius of Cæsarea—Athanasius—Basil—Gregory of Nyssa—Gregory Nazianzen—Epiphanius—John Chrysostom—Theodore of Mopsuestia—Theodoret—Cyril of Alexandria—The Historians of the Fifth and Sixth Centuries.

THE POST-NICENE LATIN FATHERS.

CONTENTS: Introduction (A. D. 325–590), on the Influence of the Roman Jurisprudence upon the Latin Church Writers—Lactantius; Hilary; Ambrose; Jerome; Augustine; John Cassian; Leo the Great; Gregory the Great; the Historians Rufinus, Sulpicius, Severus, and Cassiodorus.

D. APPLETON & CO., PUBLISHERS, 549 & 551 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

Recent Educational Works.

Words,

And how to put them together. By HARLAN H. BALLARD, Principal of Lenox High-School, Lenox, Mass. 18mo. Cloth, 40 cts.

General History,

From B. C. 800 to A. D. 1876. Outlined in Diagrams and Tables; with Index and Genealogies. For General Reference, and for Schools and Colleges. By SAMUEL WILLARD, A. M., M. D., Professor of History in Chicago High-School. 8vo. Cloth, $2.00.

Principles and Practice of Teaching.

By JAMES JOHONNOT. 12mo. Cloth, $1.50.

Harkness's Preparatory Course in Latin Prose Authors.

Comprising four books of Cæsar's Gallic War, Sallust's Catiline, and eight Orations of Cicero. With Notes, Illustrations, a Map of Gaul, and a Special Dictionary. 12mo. Cloth, $1.75.

Harkness's Sallust's Catiline.

With Notes and a Special Vocabulary. 12mo. Cloth, $1.15.

The Latin Speaker.

Easy Dialogues, and other Selections for Memorizing and Declaiming in the Latin Language. By FRANK SEWALL, A. M. 12mo. Cloth, $1.00.

Appletons' School Readers.

By WILLIAM T. HARRIS, A. M., LL. D., Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.; ANDREW J. RICKOFF, A. M., Superintendent of Instruction, Cleveland, Ohio; and MARK BAILEY, Instructor in Elocution, Yale College.

Appletons' First Reader	Price, 25 Cents.
Appletons' Second Reader	" 40 "
Appletons' Third Reader	" 52 "
Appletons' Fourth Reader	" 70 "
Appletons' Fifth Reader	$1.25 "

D. APPLETON & CO., PUBLISHERS, 549 & 551 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

Education as a Science.

By ALEXANDER BAIN, LL. D., Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen. (Forming Vol. XXV. of "The International Scientific Series.") 12mo. Cloth, $1.75.

A Hand-book of Requirements for Admission to the Colleges of the United States.

With Miscellaneous Addenda, for the Use of High-Schools, Academies, and other College Preparatory Institutions. Compiled and arranged by A. F. NIGHTINGALE, A. M. Large 8vo. Cloth. Price, $1.00.

Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar.

Containing Accidence and Word Formation. By the Rev. RICHARD MORRIS, LL. D., President of the Philological Society, London. 18mo. Cloth, 254 pages. Price, $1.00.

Primer of the Natural Resources of the United States.

By J. HARRIS PATTON, author of the "Concise History of the United States." 16mo. Cloth. Uniform with "Science Primers." Price, 45 cents.

The Fairy-Land of Science.

By ARABELLA B. BUCKLEY, author of "A Short History of Natural Science," etc. With numerous Illustrations. 1 vol., 12mo, 244 pages. Cloth, price, $1.50.

The Study of Rocks.

An Elementary Text-Book in Petrology. With Illustrations. By FRANK RUTLY, of the English Geological Survey. Forming a new volume in "Text-Books of Science Series." 16mo. Cloth. 319 pages. Price, $1.75.

For sale by all booksellers. Any volume mailed, post-paid, to any address in the United States, on receipt of price.

D. APPLETON & CO., PUBLISHERS, 549 & 551 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

Recent American History and Biography.

Destruction and Reconstruction:

Personal Experiences of the Late War. By RICHARD TAYLOR, Lieutenant General in the Confederate Army. 1 vol., 8vo. Cloth. Price, $2.00.

Four Years with General Lee:

Being a Summary of the more Important Events touching the Career of General Robert E. Lee, in the War between the States; together with an Authoritative Statement of the Strength of the Army which he commanded in the Field. By WILLIAM H. TAYLOR, of his Staff, and late Adjutant-General of the Army of Northern Virginia. 8vo. Cloth, $2.00.

Military Operations of Joseph E. Johnston.

Narrative of Military Operations directed during the Late War between the States. By JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON, General C. S. A. Illustrated by Steel Plates and Maps. 1 vol., 8vo. Cloth, $5.00; sheep, $6.00; half morocco, $7.50.

The Life of General Albert Sidney Johnston.

By his Son, Colonel WILLIAM PRESTON JOHNSTON. One large octavo volume, 774 pages. With Maps, a fine Portrait on Steel, and 8 full-page Illustrations. Cloth, $5.00; sheep, $6.00; half turkey, $7.00.

The Autobiography of William H. Seward (1801–1834).

With a later Memoir by his Son, FREDERICK W. SEWARD, late Assistant Secretary of State. Per volume, over 800 pages, cloth, $4.25; sheep, $5.25; half turkey, $6.25; full turkey, $8.25.

Military History of General U. S. Grant.

From April, 1861, to April, 1865. By ADAM BADEAU, Colonel and Aide-de-Camp to the General-in-Chief, Brevet Brigadier-General U. S. A. With Portrait, and numerous Maps. Vol. I. 8vo. Cloth, $4.00; half calf, extra, $6.50.

Memoirs of W. T. Sherman.

By Himself. (With a Military Map showing the Marches of the United States Forces under General Sherman's command.) Two handsome vols., 8vo. Blue cloth, $5.50; sheep, $7.00; half morocco, $8.50; full morocco, $12.00.

CHEAP EDITION. 1 vol. Cloth, $3.50.

D. APPLETON & CO., PUBLISHERS, 549 & 551 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

NOV - 1 1947

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
0 021 933 856 9